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# VIRGINIA LITERARY MUSEUM

AND

JOURNAL OF BELLES LETTRES, ARTS, &c.

Published every Wednesday.—Terms, five dollars per annum, to be paid in advance.

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## PROSPECTUS

### OF A LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC JOURNAL,

To be published weekly, at the University of Virginia, under the title of "*The Virginia Literary Museum, and Journal of Belles-Lettres, Arts and Sciences, &c.*"

The objects of this Journal will be, to communicate the truths and discoveries of Science to the miscellaneous reader, and to encourage a taste for polite literature.

It will rely, chiefly, for its support on the Professors of the University, whose minds, kept in a state of active inquiry, by the Lectures required of them, may be expected to afford original and interesting contributions, on all the important branches of Learning or Science.

The Scientific portion of the work will, generally, be of a popular character; but, should it occasionally contain discussions, which, on account of their novelty or importance, may also interest the adept, it will be the aim of the Editors to make such articles, so far as may be practicable, intelligible and instructive to the general reader.

Whilst the Journal will be principally devoted to general topics of Moral or Physical Science, Philology and Polite Literature, the Editors will not be unmindful of our local and peculiar concerns. They will endeavour to collect and diffuse what information they can, concerning the history of Virginia, and the other States—their first Settlement—their progress as Colonies and as Independent States—their peculiarities in Laws, Manners or Dialect—their Statistical Details and Natural Phenomena. Such a Repository is much wanted. The information, which now lies scattered among individuals, if collected, would shed great light on the past history and present state of our country. On these, and other subjects, they solicit contributions.

A part of the Journal will communicate information concerning the University—the course of instruction pursued by the several Professors—Meetings of the Visitors—Public Examinations—Statutes and Regulations of the Universi-

ty—lists of Professors and Students—honorary distinctions, and occasionally such productions of the Students as may possess unusual merit. This information, peculiarly interesting to the Parents and Guardians of the Students, will not be unacceptable to the Public. The Journal may also, by receiving and transmitting hints on the difficult subject of College government and instruction, render an important service to the cause of Education.

Party Politics and Controversial Theology will be excluded; but such exclusion will not extend to religious or political topics, of a general character, discussed with temperance and ability.

The Journal will consist of sixteen pages super-royal octavo, weekly, and at the end of the year, an Index will be furnished, so that it will form a considerable volume, annually.

The terms of subscription will be five dollars, per annum, payable on the delivery of the fifth number. The work to be commenced as soon as two hundred subscribers shall have been obtained.

Communications, post paid, to be addressed—*To the Editors of the Virginia Literary Museum, University of Virginia.*

University of Virginia, Feb. 26, 1829.

## INTRODUCTION.

From the first opening of this University, it has been thought by many of its most intelligent friends, that it presented a favorable occasion for the establishment of a Literary Journal. It was presumed, that eight or more Professors, who were daily occupied in communicating, in familiar language, the fruits of their studies to others, would be qualified to make such a work, at once useful and interesting to the public. The central position of the University, both as it respects Virginia, and the whole Union, was regarded as a further recommendation. It was known, moreover, that the plan of the Institution was principally the work of Mr. Jefferson, and that it essayed

important innovations in its discipline, and its course of instruction, as well as the structure of its buildings; whence it was inferred that a lively curiosity would be felt to learn the progress of an experiment of this high character, made by the most popular and most philosophical statesman of his age.

The force of these considerations, as well as others which more peculiarly concerned the interests of the Institution, was duly felt by the Professors; but they did not think it advisable to undertake a periodical publication while they were engaged in preparing courses of lectures for their several classes: a duty which not only requires much reading, but also the labour of adapting the result of their researches and reflections to the capacity of the learner. Nor, coming as they nearly all have done, from a distance, could they at first have told, what would be most acceptable to the public taste on their present theatre of action, or be best suited to its literary wants. These preliminary obstacles being now removed, they engage in the work with alacrity, in the hope that while they are employing their hours of leisure in contributing, of the public, and to the advancement of also be able to promote the Institution of which

They may thus, in state the disadvantage of remote as it is from any large town, and keep the University in the minds of the public, although it cannot be placed before their eyes. They may also counteract the hostility with which the Institution has been sometimes openly, and more often invidiously assailed. Had the University always possessed the means now afforded, it might have met these injurious attacks in the threshold. The peculiar advantages of its management and discipline, if the wisdom of a Jefferson, a Madison, a Monroe, and their able coadjutors can be supposed to have devised any, might have been communicated for the gratification of a liberal curiosity, and the benefit of other seats of learning: and recently, when the University was visited by a disease, from which not only no College, but no neighbourhood, nor even any plantation or estate, however elevated its site, or healthy its general character, is always exempt, they might have allayed popular ap-

prehension, and proved, from indubitable evidence, the general salubrity of the place.

There may be some difference of opinion about the species of periodical that should have been selected. Some may think a monthly publication would have been preferable to a weekly, and others, that a quarterly review would have been preferable to either. But to the last there existed these objections: there are at this time three Reviews in the United States, all of which being conducted with ability, may be supposed to engross that portion of the public patronage which is likely to be afforded to this species of writing. The interest which these periodicals once excited, is indeed already weakened by their multiplication, and it would necessarily be more so by their further increase. Besides, they are suited only to long and grave dissertations on important subjects. From them all poetry—every species of fiction and other production of fancy—all literary intelligence—all articles not extending beyond a page or two, whatever might be their character or merit, are of necessity excluded. They are adapted only to the reflective and speculative class of readers, and are little attractive to the young, the thoughtless and the gay. A weekly paper, on the other hand, is fettered by no such restrictions. It may place by the side of the most serious disquisition, a moral maxim, an insulated fact in physics, or the most minute verbal criticism. Poetry may here mingle with prose—historical facts and sketches of real life, with the wildest creations of the imagination—the phenomena of matter with those of intellect. Such a miscellany, in short, excludes no one of the thousand ways, in which one mind may act upon another, by addressing itself to the reason, the fancy, or the feelings. A weekly paper, possesses, too, some advantages over a monthly publication. The Post Office laws are more favourable to its circulation: and where the investigation of a copious subject is continued from paper from paper, as must be the case in both species, to secure the indispensable requisite of variety, or where different writers engage in controversial discussions, the shorter interval does not suffer the interest of the reader to flag, or his memory to lose the connexion of the separate parts. It is on these accounts, that such a periodical as has been chosen, is supposed to unite in a great degree, the ad-

vantages of a newspaper, a magazine, and a review.

An impression has gone abroad, the editors know not how, that the subjects of this paper, would be altogether of a scientific or technical character. The Prospectus, they think, does not warrant this conclusion: to remove, however, all doubts, on the subject, they will here remark, that under the term 'Polite Literature,' they meant to comprehend every species of composition which may please or instruct, and which does not come under the denomination of 'Science.' Their pages, therefore, are as accessible to the sportive effusions of fancy and wit, as to the most erudite disquisitions of the scholar, or the profoundest researches of philosophy. It will be their aim to give a portion of their paper to every department of knowledge: and though they should fail in communicating much that is new in Science, they trust they will be able to explain and illustrate what is already known—that they will at least add to the stock of harmless pleasure; and true to their motto, that they will, at the literary repast which they shall weekly lay before the public, be able to produce a variety of intellectual food to suit the diversified tastes of their readers.

The editors take this occasion to inform the subscribers that their first number would have appeared several weeks before, but for the unforeseen delay occasioned by the publisher in procuring his paper and type.

Q.

#### MANUFACTURE OF DIAMONDS.

After the experiments of Lavoisier and others had proved that the diamond was chemically identical with charcoal, it was natural that many attempts should be made to produce this most precious of gems, by artificial means. The project presented none of the absurdity for which the transmutations of the alchemists have been so justly ridiculed. We have at our command the material of which we know the diamond to be formed, and it is by no means impossible that we should be able to give to it the state of close aggregation and the crystalline texture which render it so valuable. It is true that we are foiled in many analogous cases. Thus, though we know that the ruby and sapphire, two of the most

beautiful of all gems, are composed almost solely of alumine or clay, yet we cannot form them from this ingredient, and they remain as rare and are as highly valued, as they were before their humble origin was discovered.

If charcoal could be melted, it is very probable that it would assume a vitreous texture, and that its conversion into diamond would be thus accomplished. Unfortunately, however, for the success of this method, charcoal, when excluded from air, is found to resist the most intense heat to which it can be exposed. In the hottest furnace, and in the focus of the most powerful lens, it remains unchanged. Sir Humphrey Davy exposed it, in chlorine gas, to the heat of the great Voltaic apparatus of the Royal Institution, without sensibly altering its texture. Professor Silliman, indeed, thought, that he had succeeded in melting small points of charcoal, by Dr. Hare's deflagrator; but Mr. Vanuxem proved that the globules which Mr. Silliman supposed to be of diamond, consisted of an oxide of iron, and were even attracted by the magnet.

These failures are certainly calculated to discourage any further attempts to produce diamonds by the fusion of charcoal; but there is another principle to which we may have recourse, and which may prove more successful. Charcoal enters into combination with many substances, such as oxygen, hydrogen, and sulphur, and, if it could be slowly precipitated from any of these combinations, it might form crystals of pure carbon, and the great chemical problem be thus solved. If the following account, taken from a communication made to the Institute of France, can be relied on, it would indeed seem as if this method had actually succeeded, in the hands of M. Gannal.

The compound which he used was the carburet of sulphur, or sulphuret of carbon, a transparent colourless liquid, remarkable, like the diamond, for its high refractive power, and which may be prepared by passing the vapour of sulphur over fragments of charcoal, heated to redness, in a tube of porcelain. M. Gannal's experiment is thus described.

'If several rolls of phosphorus are introduced into a matrass containing carburet of sulphur, covered with a layer of water, the moment the phosphorus finds itself in contact with the carburet, it dissolves, and, be-

coming liquid, is precipitated to the lower part of the matrass. The whole mass is then divided into three distinct layers: the first formed of pure water, the second of carburet of sulphur, and the third of liquefied phosphorus. Things being in this state, if the matrass be agitated so as to cause the mixture of the different bodies, the liquor grows thick, becomes milky, and, after a little rest, separates anew, but only into two layers; the upper one of pure water, the under one of phosphuret of sulphur; and between those two layers, there is a very thin stratum of white powder, which, when the matrass is exposed to the sun's rays, exhibits all the colours of the prism; and which, consequently, appears to be formed of a multitude of little crystals.

Encouraged by this experiment, M. Gannal endeavoured, by the following process, to obtain larger crystals, and succeeded. He introduced into a matrass, placed where it would be quite undisturbed, first eight ounces of water, and then eight ounces of carburet of sulphur, and eight ounces of phosphorus. As in the preceding experiment, the phosphorus dissolved; and the three liquids arranged themselves in the order of their specific gravity. After four-and-twenty hours, there was formed between the layer of water and the layer of carburet of sulphur, an extremely thin pellicle of white powder, having here and there several air bubbles, and various centres of crystallization, formed, some by spars of very thin sheets, and others by stars. In the course of a few days, this pellicle gradually grew thicker. At the same time, the separation of the two inferior liquids became less complete; and in three months they appeared to form but one and the same substance. Another month having elapsed without any new result, the question was, how to find means of separating the crystallized substance from the phosphuret of sulphur, to which the inflammability of the mixture presented great obstacles. After several attempts, more or less unsuccessful, M. Gannal determined to filter the whole through a chamois skin, which he afterwards placed under a glass bell, taking care, from time to time, to renew the air. At the end of a month, this skin becoming capable of being handled without inconvenience, it was doubled up, washed, and dried. For the first time, M. Gannal was then enabled to examine the crystallized substance

which remained on its surface. Exposed to the sun's rays, this substance presented numerous crystals, reflecting all the colours of the rainbow. Twenty of them were large enough to be taken up with the point of a penknife; and three others were of the size of a grain of millet. These last, having been submitted to the inspection of an experienced jeweller in Paris, were pronounced by him to be real diamonds!

We are sure that this notice of M. Gannal's discovery will be read with interest, especially if it be considered, that the diamond is not a mere article of luxury, but, like silver and gold, has many valuable properties independent of its rarity. Its use in cutting glass is familiarly known; and it forms the only tools for shaping and polishing the hard jewels used in chronometers and the best watches.

It appears that a M. Delatour, has also produced the diamond; but we have yet seen no account of his process. M.

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#### AUSTRALIAN ADVERTISEMENTS.

*'In tenui labor—'*

VIRGIL. *Georgic.*

Though low the subject, it deserves our pains.'

Newspaper advertisements frequently exhibit the characteristic manners of a country more forcibly than any other kind of publication: hence the traveller turns anxiously to them, on visiting any foreign country; and hence, again, the pleasure which is experienced in referring to the files published by our Ancestors. The value of this kind of information, in depicting manners and customs, has, indeed, induced a late historian of New South Wales, Mr. W. C. Wentworth, to go so far as to publish, in his work, a literal copy of an entire *Sydney Gazette*!

In our own Newspapers, peculiarities occur, which are striking to the English traveller. 'The *Subscriber* has the honor' &c. is never seen in the English Journals although strictly correct, in the sense we employ it, both in etymology and by antient custom, its acception, in recent times, has been, in England, almost entirely limited to the 'Contributor to any Undertaking;' and, where the expression would be used here, the word 'Undersigned' would be substituted in England.—The *undersigned* has the honor,' &c.

Another trifling difference likewise exists in the use, with us, of the First person singular, in our advertisements, which is scarcely ever employed by the English, as 'I will offer for sale,' &c.

The Virginia traveller, in Great Britain, would, of course, be impressed with these verbal distinctions, but, still more, by the false and inflated taste to which commercial emulation has given rise in that country. Every expedient is adopted to engage the attention of the reader, and, at times, the false colours are displayed in so attractive and humorous a manner, as to compensate, in some measure, for the fraud which has been practised. The Comedian, Matthews, who is well known for his various caricature representations of National manners and customs, was in the habit of adding one or two elucidations of this metreticulous taste. We do not recollect his precise words, but the following is the substance—

*Dreadful Accident.*—Yesterday, as a man was employed on a high ladder, in cleaning the windows of a house in Charing Cross, a sudden gust of wind upset the ladder, when, shocking to relate, the man fell at the door of Bish's Fortunate Lottery Office, where Tickets and shares, are now selling, &c'.

*News from St. Helena.*—Authentic Advices have been received from St. Helena; they state, that the Emperor Napoleon is in good health, and, that he is determined to use no other than *Warren's Japan Blacking*, prepared and sold at No. 39, Strand.'

Nothing however, can be more characteristic of the modern system of puffing, than the following extract, from a *London Atlas* of May 1827, now before us.

'Peculiar pens adapted for every person's writing, of twelve different Cuts. 1. General Cut. 2. Hard Cut. 3. Extra-hard Cut. 4. Free Cut. 5. Strong Cut. 6. Broad Cut. 7. Medium Cut. 8. Elegant Cut. 9. Lady's Cut. 10. Gentlemen's Cut. 11. Commercial Cut. 12. Fine Cut. Manufactured by T. T. Morrell, 10 Broadway, Ludgate Hill, and may be had, of all Stationers, in town and country. Ask for T. T. Morrell's Peculiar Pens, and observe none are genuine, without his printed Label.'

Another system of more modern puffing and of attracting notoriety is, that of having the name and address of the advertiser, chalked upon the dead walls, of the Metropolis and its vicinity. We doubt whether there is a dead wall, within 40 miles

of London, unsullied by the name of Dr. Eady, the notorious successor of the Dr. Rock, so celebrated by Hogarth. The address, 39 Frith Street, Soho, has been forced upon our recollection in spite of the worthlessness of the subject. In an election, for Representatives in Parliament, for the City of London, some years ago, amidst the variety of electioneering placards, borne about amongst the populace, was one, exhibited conspicuously 'Vote for Dr. Eady, the friend to the *Constitution*.' Yet mankind are so prone to *gullibility*, have that organ so largely developed, in spite of the silence of Messrs. Gall and Spurzheim on the subject, that these impostors have succeeded, in a pecuniary point of view, the extent indeed of their desires, by their quackery. There is, at this very time, or there was, recently, in London, an association of Empirics who assumed the names of Cooper, Monro and Duncan, and succeeded in drawing patients to their establishment, under the belief, that they were really the respectable individuals, or relations of the individuals, whose names they bear. One patient left the country for the purpose of consulting Sir Astley Cooper, and remained for some time, unwittingly, under the hands of the Empiric who had assumed his name. The discovery of the imposition gave rise to a judicial investigation.

The French advertisements are more modest than those of the English, and, accordingly, it is customary, for the travellers from that country, in Great Britain, to ridicule the taste to which allusion has been made. Soon after the peace with Great Britain, in 1814, the afflux of English travellers to Paris excited every one to exhibit his goods and possessions in the most intelligible and alluring manner, and, hence, the English language was frequently selected for this purpose, by the adoption of which, if they did not succeed in the former object, they certainly accomplished the latter.

We well recollect a handsome Parisian sign, with gilt letters on a purple ground, having, on one side, the French, and, on the other, an attempted English version.

'*Ici on loue des jolis appartemens, petits et grands.*'

'Here one lets prettys apartments, smalls and larges.'

These remarks have been suggested, by the perusal of some advertisements, extract-

ed from Australian papers and contained in a late volume of the *Asiatic Journal*, Vol. xxii. p. 37. They are from Sydney periodicals, and are, in some respects, mere reflections of those in the mother country. Bearing in mind the character of many of the Colonists, no one will be surprised at the occasion of the following advertisement, however they may admire the politeness and fortitude of the lady, under her afflictions.

'Mrs. Brown respectfully thanks the community of thieves for relieving her from the fatigues and wearisomeness of keeping a Chandler's Shop, by taking the following goods off her hands, viz. 35 yards of shirting, 12 do. of Muslin, 40 do. of Calico and various articles, as the auctioneer terms it 'too many to mention in an advertisement.' But, the gentlemen, in their despatch of business, forgot that they had taken along with them an infant's paraphernalia, two dozen of clouts, so elegantly termed by washerwomen. If the professors of felony do not give a dinner to their pals, and convert them into d'oyleys for finger glasses, Mrs. Brown will thank them to return them, as they would not be so unmagnanimous and deficient of honor to keep such bagatelles from a poor mother and four children. This is to apprise the receivers of stolen property, that she will sooner or later have the pleasure of seeing their necks stretched, and that they will receive a tight cravat under the gallows by their beloved friend Jack Ketch. As the old saying is "the better day the better deed." The fraternity performed their operations on Sunday night last.

17. Phillip Street.'

The next specimen is an advertisement, addressed to a higher class, in which we have an example of the gentle *inuendo*: and of some Australian figures of speech, which are new to us.

'It is requested that those ladies and gentlemen who have, from time to time, borrowed books from Mr. S. Levey, will return them to the undersigned, who respectfully *solicits all Books*, now in possession of persons, to whom they do not belong, to comply with the above—a fresh supply may be had. Among the number missing, are the Pastor's Fireside, Tales of my Landlord, Kenilworth, Princess Charlotte, Secret Revenge, Smollet's Works, Ivanhoe, Tales of the Times, Paradise Lost,—so are the books until found by

B. LEVEY.

No 72, George Street.'

The reason, assigned for the caution conveyed in the next advertisement, is somewhat strange.

'This, is to *caution* all *Persons* against purchasing a *House* and *Premises*, situate No. 74, Cumberland Street, Rocks, as the said house and premises belongs to me.

CATHERINE REDMOND.'

The excessive politeness of a Mr. Wilshire, in the succeeding announcement to his Debtors, would lead us to suppose, that he had too much good humour to carry his threat into execution.

'SYDNEY, AUGUST 22, 1825.

May it please those I solicit, and be it known hereby:—

That all those persons who stand indebted to me, upwards of twelve months, and who do not pay the same within fourteen days from the date hereof, will be by law compelled.

JAMES WILSHIRE.'

Their elections to vacant offices seem to be conducted, as in the mother country: we doubt, however, whether any candidate, in the latter, ever thought of presenting the argument contained in the following address for the situation of Bank Director in the Colony!

'TO THE PROPRIETORS OF THE BANK OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,

I beg leave to offer myself as a candidate for the Directorship of the Bank of New South Wales, at the ensuing election.

Acknowledging, as I do, *having no claim whatever to your support*: yet should you be disposed to honor me with your vote and interest, you may confidently rely on a faithful and zealous discharge of the duties of that important trust.

I have the honor to remain, Ladies and Gentlemen.

Your obedient humble Servant,

W. JEMMET BROWNE.

Charlotte Place, Nov. 12, 1825.'

The Bankrupt Laws of the mother country do not extend to the Colony: so that, it would appear, great vigilance is necessary, in cases of Levy, to prevent a return on the part of the Sheriff of *Nulla Bona*. The following letters relate to an alleged attempt, on the part of a Mr. Josephson, to withdraw his property from the just claims of a Mr. S. Levey, the same gentleman, who solicits his books to return to him which was defeated by the obstinate integrity of an Australian Victualer.

PARRAMATTA, 27 OCTOBER, 1826.

SIR,

In reading the Gazette of this day, I see an advertisement from the creditors, offering a re-

ward to any person giving information of property concealed by Jacob Josephson, to prevent his creditors getting their just claims. As an Innkeeper, prospering under the patronage of a liberal public, I am bound to make them acquainted, and more particularly you, Sir, whose favour and friendship in gratitude I must remember. About five weeks back, Mrs. Nash bought, at Jacob Josephson's shop, a great quantity of wine glasses and tumblers &c. They were packed in boxes, and ordered to be sent by the Parramatta boat: with them came a large heavy trunk, and a note from Josephson, observing that this trunk was to be taken care of till Mrs. J. came up. On that lady's calling at my place, she said I was to take care of the trunk till she sent a cart for it; and as it is evident Josephson was making a hiding hole of my house in a most unjustifiable manner, I feel it my duty to inform you of these circumstances, so that you may do all that is necessary to get possession of this box, which I suspect contains valuable property; and admitting it is worth five thousand pounds, I will not accept of a shilling as a reward, for it is the property of the creditors, and if they think proper to make a present to the Benevolent Society it will perfectly satisfy

Yours truly,  
ANDREW NASH.

To Mr. S. Levey, Macquarie Place.

To this statement of the honest and disinterested Publican, the fraudulent tradesman has the audacity to oppose the following advertisement, unique for its insolence and obscurity: we know not which predominates.

*To the Editors of the Australian.*

GENTLEMEN,

Yours of the 10th. inst. appeared a pompous statement, announcing the discovery of a Box, which had neither been lost or mislaid, at that well known abode of integrity. I will not, gentlemen, offer any comment at present upon such statements, but, gentlemen, I am with the majority of your readers (particularly the old hands) positively electrified at the formidable miraculous declaration of mine host, that he would not touch the informers dividend. The comet has doubtless purified the vulgar sentiments of the happy residents of that distinguished quarter.

I protest that I will cheerfully subscribe my humble pittance for the purpose of erecting (in honor of Boniface) a statue of Hermes, divested of his grappling irons, reposing in the lap of honour. I shall conclude by reiterating the old-

en enquiry—"What! is Saul among the Prophets?"

I remain, Gentlemen, your obedient servant,  
JACOB JOSEPHSON.

Nov. 11, 1825.

The art of puffing is yet in its infancy in Australia. If we judge by the following specimen, the Colonists are, in this respect, far behind their British prototypes.

NOTHING NEW.

'There's nothing new beneath the sun,

So ancient wits decisions run;

But wit no match for facts we see,

For I know things and so do you,

Though not lasting, ever new;

What think you, Sirs, the price of TEA?

Now selling at 2s. 6d. per lb. by A. Polack, No. 7, Pitt Street.'

The half slang style of reporting in the newspapers for which the *London Morning Herald* has rendered itself so celebrated, could not fail to meet with imitators, in Australia, as it has amongst the Police reporters of this country.

'On Saturday last a mistaken mortal was brought to the bar of the police office for indulging too freely at the cost of others. It appears that Mr. Speedy, being somewhat seedy, and feeling himself joyously inclined, repaired to the Wellington's Head, in George Street, on Friday evening and indulged himself with copious draughts of "heavy" (*beer*) garnished occasionally with "blue ruin," (*Gin*) and a blow of his "brosely," and a puff of his tobacco pipe. Now it so happened, that when the reckoning was talked about, he discovered that his waistcoat pocket was threadbare, and that two silver dumps had taken their leave of him through a little aperture. This was a bitter piece of business to him, for it obtained him a night's lodging in the cell of a watch house. Mr. Speedy, being asked what he had to say to it? "Why please your worship," said he "I was rather degenerated in my faculties with the drink, and the talk, and the tobacco, and one thing or another, that I do not recollect it your Worship, or certainly I should not have done it, that's certain." He was ordered to pay for the "bitters" and was discharged, with admonitions for his future government.'

Lastly, the extracts from these newspapers exhibit, that the effusions of their 'small beer poets' are little, if at all, better than similar efforts in our own meridian. We are somewhat surprised, however, at the taste which could, in any respect, encourage the publication of such

miserable trash as occasionally makes its appearance, there, under a more imposing form. In the Sydney papers, from which the above extracts were taken, is an advertisement of a volume, to be published by subscription, from the pen of a Thomas Parmeter, M.D.: to which most of the people of rank in the Colony, had given their sanction. It contains *poetry*, a specimen of which the author appended to his advertisement. The following is from a piece entitled 'Anticipation.'

Pride of Birth I scorn—and freely scan  
The scetch, who dares to hate his fellow man;  
Like a stubble goose who proudly struts,  
With pampered, hale, inflated, grumbling guts;  
And chaff would confine to the nobler steed,  
What the wind would own as a mighty meed.  
And one great light the Romans did not know,  
That vice (in the *British Press* has a foe,  
Whose freedom and fire we must all endure  
Like sharp caustic, we must probe to cure;  
Thought more than rhyme is all my ardent aim,  
To please the few, not mount the stool of fame.'

It must not, however, be imagined, that the examples of literature, which we have given, are the best that Australia can afford. We have, already, some excellent Geographical and Historical accounts of the Colony by natives, and some specimens of poetry, which would do honour to their authors in any portion of the globe. There is no reason, indeed, why that distant country should not hereafter be a favourite seat of the Muses. It is situated in a heavenly climate, and is possessed of the most singular anomalies especially in the animal and vegetable parts of the creation—birds without wings, as large as Deer, their bodies covered with hair instead of feathers—beasts with the beaks of birds—ferns, nettles and even grasses growing to the size and shape of trees,—rivers running from the sea and lost in interior swamps; 'this,' says a colonial writer,\* 'is New Holland, where it is summer with us, when it is winter in Europe, and vice versa; where the barometer rises before bad weather, and falls before good: where the North is the hot wind and the South the cold; where the humblest house is fitted up with Cedar (*Cedrela toona* according to Mr. Brown:) where the fields are fenced with Mahogany (*Eucalyptus robusta*), and Myrtle trees (*Myrtaceæ*) are

burnt for firewood: where the swans are black and the eagles white: where the Kangaroo, an animal between the squirrel and the Deer, has five claws on its fore paws and three talons on its hind legs, like a bird and yet hops on its tail: where the Mole (*Ornithorhynchus paradoxus*), lays eggs, and has a Duck's bill:\* where there is a bird (*Meliphaga*), with a broom in its mouth instead of a tongue: where there is a fish, one half belonging to the genus *Raia*, and the other, to that of *Squalus*: where the pears are made of wood, (*Xylometum pyrifforme*), with the stalk at the broader end: and where the cherry (*Exocarpus Cupressiformis*) grows with the stone on the outside.'

These circumstances offer novel food to the imagination, the effects of which may sooner or later be perceptible. Zy.

\* This singular animal, the native name of which is *Mullingong*, has a venomous spur, a wound from which is followed by swelling and pain, but it rarely, if ever, proves fatal. Zy.

#### AMIANTH CLOTH, PAPER, &c.

Amianthus, a variety of Asbestos, contains, per cent., about 59 parts of sand, (*silex*), 25 of magnesia and 10 of lime, besides traces of clay and iron oxide.—It is usually found in veins and consists of fibres very flexible and somewhat elastic. Friction readily separates them, and when dressed a little, they bear a considerable resemblance to fibres of silk or flax.

This filamentous nature and the power of enduring a red heat, without any very apparent loss of substance, have long rendered Amianthus celebrated among minerals. All its names are in allusion to these properties or their applications to useful purposes.

Asbestos, for example the original term, comes from the adjective ἀσβεστός, *inextinguishable*, from a supposed practice, among the Greeks, of using the mineral to form wicks for their perpetual or sepulchral lamps.

Amianthus, also, bears, in its etymology, an indirect allusion to the effects of fire. The word ἀμύαντος, which signifies 'incapable of being soiled,' was given in consequence of the facility with which articles, manufactured from this mineral, were cleansed by means of fire.

\* In *Geographical Memoirs on New South Wales*, by various hands." Edited by Barron Field, Esq. F.L.S. London, 1825.



Other names were bestowed upon it, which may be briefly noticed—The Romans called it *Linum Virum*, both from its resemblance to flax and its indestructibility. It was also named *Linum Indum*, *L. Montanum*, *L. incombustibile*, *Lana Montana*, *Salamandra lapidea*, &c. The last name seems to have arisen from a conjecture that the fable of the Salamander originated from a practice among the ancients of purifying by heat, the various fabrications of this mineral.

Asbestos and Amianthus, are the terms which have passed into the principal European languages.

We have the most positive records, that this substance was in use among the Greeks and Romans, for the purpose of manufacturing articles in imitation of linen. The workmanship and quality, if we credit the testimony of Pliny and Plutarch, must have been of a very superior character.

The former writer ranks the Amianth cloth, next in quality to the Byssus or fine cotton, worn by wealthy ladies. Plutarch, also, states, that this mineral was wrought into head-ornaments for females. It does not appear, however, that the art of weaving it was sufficiently general to render the cloth cheap. Indeed, every circumstance seems to show, that this fabric must have been an article of luxury among the ancients; and there certainly was an obvious, though, perhaps, excusable parade of its incombustible properties, upon all occasions. The practice in Pliny's time and which he describes as an eye witness was, to toss the napkins of Amianth into the fire, after a repast or banquet, in order that the grease and dirt might be burnt out. Each guest, thus delighted in becoming his own washer. The same vain and clumsy display, we may observe, is recorded of the first Dauphin, Charles V., during whose reign, Amianthus manufactures seem to have been established at Venice, Louvain, and other parts of Europe. Pliny notices another very important use of mineral cloth, namely, as a shroud or wrapper for the bodies of Kings, in order to preserve their ashes distinct from those of the funeral pile. That such a practice existed, we have positive proof, independently of the historian's testimony, by the discovery, in 1702, near the Porta Næva at Rome, of a funeral urn, ornamented with elegant *basso relievo*s and containing a skull

with some calcined bones—a quantity of ashes was also found enclosed within a cloth of Amianthus, nine Roman palms long and seven wide. This relic was deposited in the Vatican library, by order of Pope Clement XI. The very diminutive size agrees but badly with Pliny's account of its use, and will serve to caution us against confidence in his other exaggerated statements. It is said, that the disuse of burning the dead occasioned the decline of the manufacture of these cloths, until the art became entirely extinct in Europe. The correctness of this opinion will be noticed presently. Thread, nets, net-work, head ornaments, napkins, table and funeral cloths, seem to have constituted nearly all the articles manufactured of Amianthus in former times. Bonnets, gloves, purses, girdles, ribbons and even paper have been subsequently made from it. The process, by which the mineral fibre was anciently woven, is not transmitted to us. In 1691, Ciampini of Rome published the following plan in his work '*De incombustibili lino*' and it may be considered nearly as precise as the nature of such manufacture will permit. Having steeped the Amianthus in warm water, divide it's fibres, by gently rubbing them together between the fingers, so as to loosen and separate all the extraneous matter; then pour on, repeatedly, very hot water, as long as it continues to be in the least discoloured. After this, nothing will be left but the long fibres, which are to be carefully dried in the sun. The bundles are then to be carded by very fine instruments and the long filaments, thus obtained, steeped in oil to render them more flexible. A small quantity of cotton-wool or flax is next to be mixed (taking care that the mineral fibre is in every part, the principal material, and smoothly adjusted,) by means of a spinning wheel the whole is to be drawn into a thread. The cloth, being woven, in the usual manner, is placed upon a clear charcoal fire and made red hot so as to burn out the vegetable or animal matter &c. The remaining tissue will consist of pure white Amianth. This kind of cloth has also been made, without the assistance of other substances, by rubbing and soaking the mineral fibres, until they become so delicate and soft as to admit of being spun at once into threads. This is the process recommended by Madam Perpeuti.

The very short fibres which separate.

during the repeated washings, may be subsequently worked into paper. For this purpose, however, they require to be well beaten, until reduced to an impalpable powder, and, subsequently, to be worked up with a large quantity of size in water. These precautions are far more necessary for the amianth than for cotton or linen paper, in consequence of the much greater weight of the mineral paste. After the paper has been formed, the sizing is burnt out.

We will now briefly trace the decline of the mineral weaving, &c. It is apt to be the most glaring characteristic of the antiquarian virtuoso, to lament the loss of certain Arts among the moderns, nor does *utility* always constitute an item of his regrets. The antient process for weaving Amianth cloth appeared to be extolled, not from any accurate knowledge of the fact, but because an obscure hint or two about its superior quality, may be found among a few writers of antiquity. One of these authorities (Pliny), it is true, compares it with the byssine cloth, obtained from the neighbourhood of Elis, and which was very much esteemed; but, while he thus intimates its superiority, he elsewhere bears indirect testimony that the cloth was used merely as a rare and curious article. This writer furnishes three strong reasons why Amianth cloth could not have been in common use among the Romans. The first is the difficulty of procuring the mineral. It is described as occurring on the deserts and parched grounds of India, where rain never falls and where serpents and other formidable reptiles abound. *Secondly*, it is stated that the Amianthus, when obtained, was very scarce and commanded a price equal to that of the most costly Pearls. *Lastly*, it is expressly noticed that the workmanship was exceedingly difficult on account of the shortness of the fibre. These statements are not only in opposition to the belief that the ancients used such articles generally, but the last one goes far to contradict the assertion of Pliny himself, respecting the quality. We have, however, a still stronger fact to show, that even in the rich and luxurious times of the Roman Empire, the mineral cloth was not in much use for the purpose of collecting the ashes of the dead. Out of the immense number of ancient sepulchres, opened in Italy, during modern times, not more than one such cloth has ever been

discovered, and that (found at Rome 1702), is of very coarse texture and too small to answer the purpose of a wrapper for the body. In several Urns charcoal was found mixed with the ashes, a circumstance indicating no great care.

The truth is, that the cloth has always ranked as a curiosity and, not unfrequently, has had bestowed upon it, properties calculated for the credulous and ignorant. Pliny, who was ever too partial to hearsay records, has condescended to state, upon the authority of one Anaxilaus, that Amianth cloth, merely wrapped round a tree, has the power of depriving the blow of a hatchet of all sound. The same relish for the marvellous, no doubt, induced Marco Polo to state, that the body of our Saviour, was, in his time, preserved at Rome in a shroud of Amianth, or incorruptible cloth. Athanasius Kircher, (a Jesuit of the 17th. century,) in his '*Mundus Subterraneus*,' also extols the mineral with all the zeal of a connoisseur. He boasts of having, in his collection, paper, a screen, and a lady's veil of it, together with a lamp wick, which had burnt for two years without consuming and which, he wisely adds, will last for ever if not stolen. Whether this wick is still in operation, we have not learnt, but may venture to conclude, notwithstanding the testimony of partial advocates, that the decline of the art afterwards among the moderns, is wholly owing to the insignificance of the articles manufactured.

Experiment has abundantly proved, that, although the Amianth fibres are alone able to resist a red heat without much change, they soon, (even in twenty four hours) become incapable of transmitting a full supply of oil, owing to an imperfect cohesion effected by the flame. Hence it is impracticable to convert them into perpetual lamp-wicks. Neither is it true that a red heat has *no effect* upon them. Cloth, woven of Amianth, actually does lose weight by burning, and, after repeating the operation several times, the fibres become so brittle as to render it difficult to prevent them from crumbling to pieces. In two experiments, made before the Royal Society of London, a cloth, one foot long by six inches wide, and weighing nearly  $1\frac{1}{2}$  ounce, was found to lose, by the application of a red heat, more than one-twelfth of its weight, each time. It would be considered a very bad piece of common linen that could be worn out in twelve

washings!—The only advantage which such cloth seems to possess over the ordinary kind, is, the facility of cleansing it by fire; but, really, soap is so cheap an article, that there could not be much gained, in this respect, by a change of fabrics. The Amianth paper has even less to recommend it. It would be curious, no doubt, to return an answer upon the same piece of paper as that which was received from the Post Office, merely by *burning out* the original; but it could not be agreeable to find our ink spreading, at every letter, an inch wide, upon paper from which the fire had removed all sizing. So, also, it might appear highly important to possess an *incombustible* paper upon which could be spread all important documents; but, (not to mention the thousand methods of getting rid of the troublesome records without burning them) we must bear in mind, that an *unalterable* ink is as important as the paper, and none of those proposed has been found to be sufficient. *Incombustibility* alone, must compensate for the article being heavy, coarse, weak, liable to blot and not capable of taking the full impress of types. Books, it is true, *have* been printed upon this kind of paper, among which may be noticed the work preserved in the library of the Royal Institute of France; but, however highly authors may esteem their own productions, we feel fully persuaded that Booksellers would not tolerate such nonsense from them now-a-days. To conclude, it may be observed, that, while it is not, by any means, our wish to interfere with the Virtuoso's taste for neck handkerchiefs and shirts of *stone cloth*, we must take the liberty of hinting, that, if the perfect art of weaving it *does not* now exist, there is not much lost. P.

#### VERBAL CRITICISM.

'The devil and his tam! What phrase is this, He hears with ear? Why, it is affectations.

*Merry Wives of Windsor.'*

Among the various causes of the mutations which spoken language is ever experiencing, and which have been so often noticed and deplored, we may enumerate over refined criticism and affectation. Do what we will, every living tongue must be always undergoing change. New modes of thinking, arising from improvements and discoveries, from changes of situation,

and other accidental circumstances, naturally give rise to new terms and modes of expression. Against this class of innovations we cannot, and ought not, to contend. But that which has its origin in the desire of a uniformity, as futile as it is unattainable, or in the sheer love of novelty, has no such claims to forbearance, and it behoves us to resist it, from its obvious tendency to make the writers of one age unintelligible in another; or, at best, to throw over them a quaint and obsolete air, and to make them seem wanting in the ease and nature which is essential to the highest order of beauty. Allow me now, Messrs. Editors, to give you two or three specimens of these neologisms proceeding from hypercritical refinement.

1st. Formerly, in speaking of the publications of anonymous writers, the expressions, 'under the name,' 'under the signature,' 'under the title,' were invariably used. But of late years, some ingenious persons, from that numerous class of authors who write for the newspapers, perceiving that the assumed name or signature was commonly placed in the journal below, or at the foot of the article, have felt themselves bound, in referring to it, to say it was *over* the signature. With due deference to these critics, I think them incorrect.

The word 'under,' like other prepositions, has had its original meaning, indicating a relation of place, extended to other relations bearing some resemblance to it: in other words, it has a figurative or metaphorical, as well as a literal, sense. It is in this borrowed sense that we use the phrases, 'under the protection,' 'under a disadvantage,' 'under the appearance,' 'under the control,' 'under the belief,' with numerous others, all of which have originated from some fancied analogy between these cases and the relative position of a mask, a banner, a shelter, a superincumbent weight, and the like. Now the word 'under' when applied to a name, signature, or other analagous term, is always used in this metaphorical sense, and would be unintelligible in any other. A few examples, drawn from the best English writers, will at once show this usage of the word and its propriety:—thus

'He does it *under* the name of perfect love'—*Shakespeare.*

'This faction, *under* the name of Puritan'—*Swift.*

'The ridicule of astrology, *under* the name of Rickerstaff,'

*Johnson.*  
'Cato Major has left us an evidance, *under* his own hand,'  
*Locke*

\* *Morpheus is represented under the figure of a boy asleep,*  
Addison.

If this form of speech is proper when applied to a name, it must be equally so when applied to a signature, unless indeed we take the latter word in the technical sense in which it is used by printers, who apply it to a letter or mark placed at the bottom of the first page of a printed sheet, for the convenience of the book-binder. Is it not likely that the phrase 'over the signature,' originated with this class of our writers, since their familiarity with the technical sense of the term, would make them the first to fancy impropriety in the expression 'under the signature,' when applied to other cases? But these gentlemen still say, I believe that a book was published '*under such a title*;' if, however their critical sense of the word 'under' be correct, to be consistent they ought to say, '*after or behind the title*.'

This affectation has been already frequently reprehended, but as the arguments hitherto used against it have not proved sufficient to arrest its progress, and the phrase 'over the signature' meets the eye in every newspaper, a further and fuller notice of it was thought advisable.

2nd. Of the same character appears the modern phrase '*I take leave*,' instead of the ancient and legitimate expression of '*asking*' or '*begging leave*.' The change has been made, I presume, because it has appeared to these precisians that it is absurd for one to ask for what he at the very moment takes, and has in his possession. But to their proposed amendment there are three objections.

First. *Leave* means permission, and not *liberty*, as they seem to suppose. It is therefore, more strictly proper to say one *asks leave* or permission, than that he *takes* it. A man may take the liberty of doing any thing as it depends only on his own volition: but as *leave*, in this sense, depends on the volition of another, it may be asked, but cannot be taken.

Secondly. If there were no objection to the expression of '*taking leave*,' from its critical import, and it had the meaning ascribed to it, still that of '*begging leave*' would be justified by many analogous forms of speech; as when we are about to render a favor or assistance to another, and ask him to *permit*, *allow*, or *let* us do it: We here appear to ask the assent of the person

addressed, whilst we in fact assume it to be already given. These modes of speaking are in conformity with that exaggerated courtesy which characterises modern manners, and originated in the age of chivalry.

Thirdly. Supposing however the phrase '*taking leave*' admissible, it is still objectionable, because it has been appropriated by usage, which gives the law in language, to the very different signification of *bidding farewell*; in which sense Dr. Johnson says it means *permission to depart*; though it seems more probable that it derives its meaning from the verb *leave*, *left*; and consequently, that it is synonymous with *departure*.

Sometimes innovations in language are made from an affectation of foreign words. Many of these obtain currency, because they are supposed to convey a meaning, or to have a force, which is not found in the native tongue. They are still however used as borrowed words, and to shew that they are so regarded, they retain both their original orthography and pronunciation with all correct writers and speakers. They may rather be said to be denizens than to be naturalized. Such are the terms *belles lettres*, *fracas*, *rendezvous*, *sauz pas*, *petit maitre*, *tapis*, all of which most people continue to pronounce as French words. Yet there are not a few, among the uneducated, who, in decorating their discourse with these foreign ornaments, give them an entirely English pronunciation. It has thus happened with the new fangled word *exposé*, first current among us about five and twenty years ago, when it was used by Napoleon to designate his ostentatious displays of the prosperous state of France under his administration. It means in French neither more nor less than the English word *exposition*; but some, not content with this old fashioned term, have unnecessarily borrowed its foreign synonyme, and not accenting the final *e* make a word which is neither French nor English; *exposé*, pronounced *expozay*, being the French word, and *exposition* the only correspondent word in English.

Fourthly The verb to '*notify*' is also used in the United States in a new and peculiar way. Formerly it was peculiarly synonymous with the verb '*to inform*'. We used to notify a fact to a person, that is, we made it known to them; but now we notify the person of the fact. This inaccuracy has

proceeded more probably from inadvertence than affectation, but as it is very prevalent, and occurs in the writings and speeches of those whose example tends to give it further currency, it is deemed proper to mention it among the vicious novelties of speech.

I have thus, Messrs Editors, taken the liberty, [not, *leave*,] to make an exposition [not, *an expose*] of some of my views on the minutiae of grammar, but before I take leave of the subject, I beg [not, *take*] leave to notify my intentions to you [not, *to notify you of my intentions*] of hereafter giving you, as the humour suits, some further criticism on critics under [not, *over*] the signature of

K

ARISTARCHUS.

## JEFFERSONIANA.

The kindness of Thomas Jefferson Randolph, Esq.—the grandson of the Patriot and Philosopher, whose actions occupy so large a space in the history of his country's glory,—will enable us to lay before our readers, under this head, several extracts from the Common-Place Books of that illustrious individual, which are not destined to meet the public eye in any other form. They will be additional evidences of the indefatigable industry, in the prosecution of knowledge, which so preeminently distinguished him through the whole course of his long and useful life.

## No. 1.—HUME'S POLITICAL PRINCIPLES.

‘The following are specimens of Hume’s political principles.

“I shall only ask, whether it be not sufficiently clear, from all these transactions [to wit, temp. Elizabeth,] that in the two succeeding reigns [to wit of James and Charles,] it was the people who encroached upon the sovereign: not the sovereign who attempted, as is represented, to usurp upon the people.” Note AA. to chap. 42. “The grievances, under which the English laboured [to wit, whipping, pillorying, cropping, imprisoning, fining, &c.] when considered in themselves, without regard to the constitution, scarcely deserve the names, nor were they either burthensome on the people’s properties, or any wise shocking to the natural humanity of mankind.” c. 53.

“Had the preceding administration of the King [Charles,] which we are apt to call arbitrary, proceeded from ambition,

and an unjust desire of encroaching on the ancient liberties of the people, there would have been less reason for giving him any trust, or leaving in his hands a considerable share of that power which he had so much abused; but if his conduct was, in a great measure, derived from necessity, and from a natural desire of defending that prerogative which was transmitted to him from his ancestors, and which his parliaments were visibly encroaching on, there is no reason why he may not be esteemed a very virtuous prince and entirely worthy of trust from his people. Note CC. c. 56.

“That the letter of the law, as much as the most flaming court sermon, inculcates passive obedience, is apparent: and though the spirit of a limited government seems to require, in extraordinary cases, some mitigation of so rigorous a doctrine, it must be confessed, that the preceding genius of the English Constitution had rendered a mistake in this particular very natural and excusable.” c. 57. ch. I. “It is seldom, that the people gain any thing by revolutions in government,” c. 59. “The Commons established a principle, which is noble in itself and seems specious, but is belied by all history and experience, *that the people are the origin of all just power*,” c. 59. “Government is instituted in order to restrain the fury and the injustice of the people; and being always founded on opinion, not on force, it is dangerous to weaken, by these speculations, the reverence which the multitude owe to authority, and to instruct them before hand that the case can ever happen, when they may be freed from their duty of allegiance: or, should it be found impossible to restrain the license of human disquisitions, it must be acknowledged that the doctrine of obedience ought alone to be *inculcated*, and that the exceptions, which are rare, ought seldom or never to be mentioned in popular reasonings and discourses.” c. 59. “Amidst the passions and prejudices of that period, that he [Cromwell] should prefer the parliamentary to the legal cause, will not appear extraordinary, since, even at present, some men of sense and knowledge are disposed to think that the question with regard to the justice of the quarrel, may be regarded as doubtful and uncertain.” c. 61. *sub fine*. In a debate, in the House of Commons, March 23, 1824, Sir James McIntosh quotes Burke as having said in some speech

"I believe we shall all come to think, at last, with Mr. Hume, that an absolute monarchy is not so bad a thing as we supposed."—*Globe*, March 24, 1824.

In offering the preceding extracts, which Mr. Jefferson has grouped together for the sake of making the author's political tenets more flagrant and odious, we cannot forbear to add some passing remarks.

The principles here exhibited by Hume, taken in connexion with his unquestioned partiality for the house of Stuart, have excited vehement opposition to his history of that ill fated race among the friends of civil liberty, in this country as well as England, notwithstanding the admiration they could not but feel for the beauties of his style and his just and profound views of men and things. Nay, these very charms of his diction and philosophy served but to heighten the hostility to his history, from the influence they would naturally exert in recommending acts of tyranny and arbitrary principles of government to his readers, who are thus made to swallow poison and to believe it as wholesome as it is palatable. They have therefore long wished to see a well written history of this important era in English annals, which would counteract Hume's political principles, by refuting his constitutional doctrines, and proving him mistaken in his facts. It was by this feeling that Mr. Fox was induced to undertake the history which he never lived to finish—that Godwin and Sir James McIntosh have also, as we are told, been long engaged in similar undertakings—and that Brodie, in the work he has lately published, has laboured so diligently to shew the want of authenticity in Hume's statements.

Mr. Jefferson, who was so sensitive to every thing that seemed to have the least bearing on the cause of human freedom, partook largely of the same feeling. He even once entertained doubts about letting Hume's History hold a place in the University library; and he never failed, when an occasion presented itself, to warn his youthful acquaintance of its dangerous heresies, and to recommend, as its antidote, the work of Brodie, by whom he used to say Hume had been '*pulverized*.'

This opposition to Hume has acquired force in England from a circumstance which has no application with us. In that country, precedent has great weight in determining the principles of an ancient and

unwritten Constitution as well as in the administration of justice. Both the Whigs and Tories therefore, endeavour to support their several views of the English Constitution, by past examples; and history acquires with them an additional interest from its bearing on the political struggles of the day. A natural consequence of this interest is that it often influences men in the interpretation of such historical facts as are doubtful or obscure, and even in their estimation of the historians themselves.

But the cause is otherwise in this country, where the fundamental principles of government are not founded on precedent and usage, but on the interests of the people, as indicated by their will; and where it is held that every generation has the right, as well as the power, to make its own laws, whether primordial or municipal. We may, therefore, and ought to take the same cool and dispassionate views of these disputes about the ancient Constitution of England, as of those between the Patrician and Plebian orders of the Roman Republic; and we may admit the weight of argument to be on either side, without conceding any thing unfavourable to popular rights.

Besides, we are not only exempt from the bias arising from the supposed force of precedent, but our political principles are inculcated in so many thousand ways—they have been taught us from our earliest infancy—and we are so accustomed to see them in daily and beneficent operation, that, with most of our citizens, Hume's political tenets, however speciously recommended, must be altogether innoxious; and although we do not wonder that Mr. Jefferson should have continued to feel apprehensions that were well founded in his early life, in the same way as a fond mother who has been alarmed for the safety of her infant offspring, is ever afterwards alive to the dread of the same danger, yet we must think that his fears are unfounded, and that our youth may safely read Hume's History, and profit by his profound sagacity, in tracing events from their first causes to their remote effects; his accurate discriminations between semblance and truth; his thorough penetration into the motives of human conduct, and the inimitable ease and beauty of his style, without any danger of being contaminated by his principles of government, which,

with the safeguards that have been mentioned, they would hold to be detestable, if they did not perceive them to be absurd.

V.

JEFFERSON'S MEMOIR, CORRESPONDENCE, &c.

The second volume of the '*Memoir and Correspondence of Mr. Jefferson*' is now printed and the whole may be expected in August.

The edition will consist of six thousand copies, of which fifteen hundred have been already subscribed for, in Virginia, one thousand in Alabama and Mississippi and five hundred in Tennessee, and agents are still making additions to the lists in those States. It is a singular circumstance, that not more than one hundred and fifty copies have been subscribed for, to the north of Maryland. Some strange miscalculations must have been made regarding the probable sale of this valuable and interesting book. We have it from the best authority, that the Editor and Proprietor was offered, in Philadelphia, one dollar a copy—the bookseller not binding himself to publish more than fifteen hundred copies: yet the greater part of this edition of six thousand has already been taken, at ten dollars each copy! The work is *got up*, in every respect, in a manner highly creditable to the parties concerned. An early notice will be taken of the volumes which have appeared.

#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

Thomas Jefferson Randolph, Esq. of Edgell, in this County, has been appointed, by the Executive, a visitor of this University, in the room of W. C. Rives Esq. appointed Minister to France.

Mr. Richard Parker of Norfolk has been recently declared a graduate in the Latin language, in this University.

Messrs. Charles L. Mosby of Powhatan, William Daniel, Jun. of Lynchburg, William F. Gray of the University, B. Moseley of Georgia and G. P. Beirne of Monroe have been appointed to deliver orations on the public day, at the termination of this session, and Messrs. Henry Clagett of Loudoun and John A. Gretter of Richmond to read essays upon the same occasion.

Messrs. Moseley and Clagett have, for reasons deemed satisfactory, declined the appointment.

*Salubrity of the University.*—In the statement, published by the Faculty, regarding the causes of the fever which afflicted the University, a few months ago, it was remarked, that similar complaints are known to attack the most salubrious situations, commit their ravages for a while and then disappear, without any possibility of accounting either for their origin or disappearance. Such has been the case with the epidemic of this University: although the physical causes, on which it was dependent, have not been discovered, and consequently could not be directly combated, the disease has totally vanished and left us enjoying our usual and preeminent degree of salubrity. This result had evidently been anticipated by the Parents and Guardians of the Students: who have exhibited the most praiseworthy feeling in the promptness with which they have sanctioned the call to reassemble, as well as by the body of Students themselves, who calmly resumed their places in the institution, undismayed by the melancholy occurrences of the few preceding months. The number of Students, at present attached to the Institution, is ninety one—fifteen have not returned since, and in consequence of, the epidemic, five of whom had, themselves, been afflicted with the disease. The number of Matriculates this session, is one hundred and twenty one.

*Medical School of the University.*—A letter has been received from the Dean of the Medical Faculty of the University of Pennsylvania stating, 'that the University of Virginia comes within the scope of their *ad eundem* regulations, and that, consequently, one course in it will be valid.'

We are pleased to observe the liberal spirit, conveyed in the above determination of the Medical Faculty of that celebrated Institution, which will be warmly reciprocated by those connected with the University of Virginia, and we have no doubt that the measure, in question, will be profitable alike to both Institutions.

*Public Examination.*—As the period of the public examination, in the several schools of the University, is fast approach-

ing, it may not be uninteresting to state the course pursued, and the questions proposed, at the last general examination. The plan of the next examination will appear in an early number of this Journal.

#### ANTIENT LANGUAGES.

##### Senior Greek Class.

Written translations from Euripides [from Hippolytus, from 286 to 311—from Cyclops, 262 to 276] from Herodotus Lib. 2. Chap. 63—5 Questions, orally answered.

##### Junior Greek Class.

Written translations from Euripides [Hippolytus 1187 to 1211—Alcestes 442 to 461]—5 Questions with oral answers.

##### Senior Latin Class.

Written translations of letter, Cato to Cicero, Lib. 15. 5—Tacitus Ann. 4. 62—Questions with oral answers.

##### Junior Latin Class.

Written translation of letter, Cato to Cicero—Tacitus, German. 16 17—Questions with oral answers.

*Questions in Antient History, Geography and Chronology, to be answered in writing.*

##### Senior Class.

1—What year of the city corresponds to B. C. 123, and to B. C. 710?

2—Express, according to the Roman Calendar, Nov. 6 and Feb. 24?

3—What did Gallia Cisalpina comprise? Origin of the name?

4—Describe the situation and give the modern names of Massilia, Mediolanum, Regium, Neapolis, Tarentum, Brundisium, Syracuse, Panormus?

5—The antient political divisions of the Peloponnesus: origin of the modern name? area? chief rivers? and physical circumstances of the country?

6—Describe the situation and give the antient names of Patras, Navarino, Napoli di Romania.

7—How did the antient Egyptians regulate their civil year? on how many Julian years would an Egyptian festival of a given day occupy successively every day of the Julian year?

8—How might Livius have obtained his real or supposed knowledge of early Roman history?

9—The Greek colonies of Italy and Sicily; who preceded the Greeks in the occupation of Sicily, who succeeded them? Is *Ætna* mentioned as a volcano by the old Greek writers?

10—To what may we attribute the success of *Annibal* in his earlier Italiann campaigns? What author should be studied for the purpose of correcting Livius?

11—How did the Romans become acquainted

with sculpture, painting and philosophical speculations?

12—The situation of *Athenæ*? describe the Parthenon, Theseium, Piræus, Long walls?

13th—The situation of the Phœnician towns; their trade and voyages: the antient books in which the information is found?

##### Junior Class.

1—The extant Roman historians to the time of Trajanus?

2—The signification of '*Italia*' in the early ages of the republic?

3—The meaning of *possessio*, the Agrarian laws; what authors to be studied for the proper understanding of them?

4—*Jus Latinum*, *jus italicum*, *colonia*, *municipium*, *Patricius*, *Plebeius*, *Libertus* and *Libertinus*: describe accurately the whole signification of each word?

5—Describe a Roman Provincial or territorial government—sources of revenue in the time of the Republic?

6—The general physical character of Greece north of the Isthmus? area of all Greece? position of Thermopylæ, Delphi, Thebæ in Bœotia, Aulis, Marathon?

7—Greeks lived and wrote in the south of France and Italy, in Sicily, North Africa, on the Black Sea, in Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, and on the banks of the Euphrates—explain fully the causes of these historical facts?

8—Corinthus was a rich city even in the time of Homer, and also at later periods—how is this explained?

9—The situation of Carthago? nature and composition of her armies? her foreign possessions?

[To be Continued.]

#### NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. &c.

Communications have been received from PZ, Q, P, B, XY, YY, WY and ZY.

The Editors will thank their contributors not to allow their communications to exceed six printed pages, unless the subject admits of division.

Advertisements, when of a purely literary character, will be inserted on the last page of the Journal.

It is the intention of the Editors to offer, occasionally, as a premium, a copy of the '*Museum*' for one year, for the best essay, not exceeding six pages, written by a Student of the University, on subjects to be specified.

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"POSCENTES VARIO MULTUM DIVERSA PALATO"—Hor. Lib. ii. Ep. 2.

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### THE POLICY OF ENCOURAGING MANUFACTURES.

*We must now place the Manufacturer by the side of the Agriculturist.*—JEFFERSON.

Let not the reader suppose that we mean to discuss the merits of the Tariff. The time may come when we, too, may have something to say on that vexed question; and when the passions which now mingle in the discussion having subsided, we shall endeavour to shew how far we think that both parties have pushed their arguments too far, and how far we coincide with either. At present we shall confine ourselves to the inquiry whether it is at once practicable and wise to promote manufactures in Virginia.

The mind of the writer of the following remarks has undergone a change within a year or two, as to the capacity of this State for manufacturing establishments. In considering the general stagnation of trade, the depression of prices which our staple commodities had experienced for some years, and the consequent distress felt by the great body of the community, he thought he perceived a remedy for our loss of foreign markets, and the redundancy of our agricultural products in the diversion of a part of our capital and industry into the new channel of manufactures. Nor was he singular in that change of opinion, as was proved by the newspapers, those faithful mirrors of public sentiment, in which have appeared from time to time several sensible essays inviting attention to the subject.

Within the last twelvemonth, however, a favorable change has taken place, in the prices both of wheat and tobacco: our planters and farmers have received saving,

and in some instances, liberal prices, for their produce; and the subject of manufactures has lost much of the interest it lately excited among us. In the joys of returning health we have forgotten both the disease and the Doctors.

But is the present change for the better permanent: and may not the malady, suspended for a time, return with aggravated force? The price of tobacco, always fluctuating according to the quantity made, is higher at present for the short crop made the preceding year; and the price of wheat we know to have been raised by the failure of the last harvest in Europe.

When these accidental circumstances shall no longer exist, we must expect that the superabundant supply of our staple products will again cause them to be of dull sale at low prices; that the profits of slaves and the value of land will fall in proportion; and that our citizens, not availing themselves of the materials of wealth they so amply possess, will be again made to feel, perhaps with renovated severity, the sore evils of poverty and debt.

Now then is the time to prepare for the too probable change in our affairs, and to ask ourselves if the evils are irremediable. There are indeed persons who amuse the public with assigning very different causes for the distresses of the country from those here suggested: some attributing them to the Tariff; others to the multiplication of Banks, and others again to the loss of the English West India trade. But as the prices of all our domestic products depend upon those of wheat, tobacco and cotton, which again depend upon the prices these commodities bear in other countries, it is not seen that the causes which have been thus assigned can have much more agency in producing our pecuniary difficulties

than the last year's comet; and the credulity which now assents to the one, would, two centuries ago, have readily admitted the other.

It does seem to me, I repeat, that a remedy for the mischief may be found in a transfer of a part of our productive industry from agriculture to manufactures; which new distribution of labour, by lessening the superabundance of the raw products that we must find a market for abroad, will raise their prices, and by lessening our dependance on foreign countries for articles of consumption, will make us better able to pay for such as we may continue to purchase.

But before we further consider the benefits of this new direction of our industry, let us examine the objections which have been urged to the establishment of manufactures in Virginia. They may be reduced to our, 1st. the high price of labour, and the high rate of interest among us. 2d. The disadvantages of slave labour. 3. The objections of a moral and political character. 4. Those arising from the principles of free trade. Of which the two first deny the practicability of the proposed remedy, and the two last, its policy, though it were practicable.

First. *The high rates of wages and of interest in this country.*

This objection is founded on the connexion which is known to exist between the value of labour and the progress of society. It is readily conceded that as population advances, raw produce rises and labour falls, by which is meant that the same portion of labour will exchange for a less and less portion of raw produce. Thus labour bears a lower price in England than in the United States, a yet lower in Ireland than in England, and a lower still in India or China. The profits of capital or the national interest of money, though governed by different laws, in like manner decreases with the progress of wealth, and is therefore lower in Philadelphia than in Kentucky, and lower in London than Philadelphia. These circumstances of cheaper labour and a lower rate of interest evidently give the nation possessing them great advantages in manufactures: Nor are they all. Their denser numbers and more abundant capital are also likely to be accompanied by greater skill, more various and improved ma-

chinery, and the advantages of a greater subdivision of employments. Two countries therefore thus differently circumstanced, or two portions of the same country, may exchange raw products for manufactures, and both be gainers by the exchange.

But it must not be forgotten that the degree of profit attending such a commerce, and the extent to which it may be carried on with any profit at all, depend not only upon the different degrees of advancement of each nation in numbers and capital, but also on their distance from each other—on the value compared with the bulk of each particular article of traffic—and on the exemption of the trade from burthens and restrictions; modifications of any of which may be sufficient to counterbalance the advantages arising from greater cheapness of labour or capital, and may have the same effect on this interchange of commodities, as a rise in the price of labour in one country, or a fall of it in the other. The same extent of transportation which would add not more than ten per cent to the price of tobacco, might enhance that of flour twenty per cent, of Indian corn, fifty or sixty, and that of hay, more than a hundred per cent. So it may cost no more to convey a given value, in silks or muslins a thousand miles, than the same value in blankets or sail-cloth, fifty. It is equally clear that whatever may be the inducements to two countries to trade, they may be counteracted by the duties and other restrictions imposed on the commerce by their respective governments.

Notwithstanding our distance from Europe, such is the difference in the natural prices of labour and raw produce in the two countries, that we have carried on a profitable trade with the maritime nations of that continent, by selling them tobacco, flour, and of late years, cotton, and receiving from them, especially Great Britain, the products of their looms, their potteries, furnaces and workshops. The distance, however, in increasing the expense of transportation, has always made it advantageous to us to supply ourselves with many articles of manufacture, such as hats, shoes, coarse clothing, household furniture, and every species of farming utensils.

But this trade, once so beneficial to both countries, has long ceased to yield its former profits, and it remains to be seen how the change has affected the price of labour

in this country. We will notice our chief articles of export in succession.

Our breadstuffs, of which we have a great, and increasing surplus, have sometimes been profitable articles of export, and sometimes not. In most parts of Europe, the prices of wheat, except in times of scarcity, are not such as to defray the cost of transportation. To England, however, owing to the higher prices of its raw produce (the effect of its great wealth and dense population) the export was commonly profitable under the disadvantage of a heavy duty. But after the peace of 1815, the land owners of that country, who have great influence in its councils, have procured the exclusion of foreign grain from their ports, for the sake of raising the price of corn at home.

Thus deprived of what was formerly the most extensive market for one of our chief articles of export, and finding no new vents, except, to a small extent, in Spanish America, its price has fallen in proportion, and with it has declined the value of the land and labour in the large district in which wheat is cultivated. This policy of Great Britain, in relation to grain, has indeed been lately modified so as to substitute a heavy duty for a prohibition; but the duty being so regulated as to increase, as the market price of corn diminishes, it will, in ordinary years, be sufficient to put a stop to the trade, and of course produce the effect of a prohibition.

Although the importation of tobacco has been forbidden altogether, by no European nation, it is every where subjected to heavy duties and other restrictions, by which its consumption is greatly diminished. Thus Great Britain imposes a duty on it of about sixty six cents a pound, the effect of which is to lessen the consumption, probably, one half: and France limits the quantity that may be imported to a much smaller proportion of what her people would purchase and pay a heavy duty for, if the present restriction were removed.

The article of cotton has indeed been free from all restraint and discouragement whatever in Europe, in consequence of its furnishing, beyond any other commodity, the materials of profitable employment to the manufacturing class; but other circumstances have concurred to increase the quantity brought into market still faster than the demand, increasing as that also has

been, and to produce the same depression of price that has taken place in our other staples. First. Its culture has been substituted in some parts of the country for that of wheat and tobacco, when the latter had ceased to be profitable. This change has taken place to a great extent in the southern and eastern parts of Virginia, as well as in North Carolina and Tennessee. Probably more than fifty thousand bales in a year now find their first market in Richmond and Petersburg, where, until lately, there was not a single bale. Secondly. Its culture has also increased in other countries, as in Brazil and Egypt. Thirdly. But principally, by reason of the great emigrations which have taken place from other parts of the Union to the cotton-growing states of Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana. In consequence of this increased cultivation of cotton in the United States, the quantity which, from 1802 to 1806, averaged one hundred and fourteen thousand bales a year, from 1823 to 1827, averaged four hundred and thirty seven thousand bales; having thus almost quadrupled in twenty-five years. The excess would probably have been much greater if the quantity consumed in the United States and exported to France and other countries had not increased, in the same period, in a much greater proportion. By the united operation of these untoward circumstances the cultivation of cotton has, for several years past been not more profitable than that of wheat and tobacco: nor indeed could it ever be long otherwise, seeing the facility with which our citizens migrate to new climates and pass from one employment to another, provided only it be agricultural.

The causes that have been here assigned, for the low prices which our staple products have recently borne, originating principally in the mistaken policy of foreign nations, some persons may indulge the hope that they will be temporary,—that they will either yield to negotiation, or to sounder views of political economy. But besides that such expectations are unwarranted by all past experience, there is a cooperating cause which must not be overlooked, and which is equally beyond the reach of foreign and domestic policy: I mean the greater rate at which our raw products increase beyond the European demand, arising from our more rapid increase of numbers. Whilst our population doubles in less

than twenty-five years, that of western Europe scarcely doubles in a century; and supposing the production and consumption of each nation to be in proportion to its numbers, the supply of our products is always increasing faster than the foreign demand for them. Our growing demand for their manufactures would also tend to increase still faster than the supply, if it were not for the improvements which machinery has hitherto been continually receiving. Whenever this progressive amelioration ceases, or much abates, we shall, as long as we remain an agricultural people, be constrained to enter the market, both as buyers and sellers, under still increasing disadvantages. Our capacities for production are, augmented, by the mere increase of population, supposing no aids to be derived from improvements in husbandry, or new facilities of transportation, is about thirty three per cent in ten years. *With* those aids it is, perhaps, fifty per cent.

This very active, and general cause of an augmented supply, concurring with the restrictive policy of foreign nations in lessening the demand, has occasioned a redundancy in all our agricultural products, and, consequently a general depression of prices, by which the profits of labour with us are approximated to those of a far denser population. Thus common labourers who formerly hired for eighty or ninety dollars a year, would not command the last year more than from thirty to forty dollars. When it is considered that the wages of labour, even where it is lowest, constitutes so large a part of the value of manufactured commodities, (from twenty-five to forty per cent and even more,) it is evident that where we could not manufacture to advantage before, we may manufacture with a profit now, if we had the requisite skill and capital.

In the next number we shall continue the subject, and compare the prices of labour and the profits of capital in Virginia and in those countries from which she is now principally supplied with manufactures.

K.

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#### THE MAN WHO WAS BOILED.

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Man's nature cannot carry the affliction, or the fear.

Shakespeare.

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It has been often remarked that if the extraordinary occurrences which happen

in real life were collected and made known, they would be found to exceed in improbability, in bizarre extravagance, and terror, all the bodewilments of a German romance maker. Where, among the fictitious horrors which are poured monthly from the press, can we find a situation of pain and excitement exceeding the *real* agony, mental and bodily, that I endured not ten days since, in one of the most populous parts of America, and under the peaceable administration of John Quincy Adams?—To be boiled alive!—Great Heaven!—Simmered into a palpitating soup!—The dreadful conviction dawning slowly upon my mind, and the horrible pain increasing by minute atoms of agony!—Ye powers of terror! the very recollection is scalding.

I am glad, Messrs. Editors, that your Museum makes its appearance from a learned University,—the grave production of erudite and thinking men: it is a guarantee against deceptions—an assurance that the truth will be told as rigidly in the history of individuals as in that of States and Empires. You could not receive a tale that bore the marks of deception,—it would be derogatory to your grave and responsible character. This I feel as a great advantage. An obscure individual like myself, in telling such a tale as I have to relate requires it. The public, when they see my story in *your* paper, will know that it is “a case of real distress;” and were there any chance of its being thought otherwise, I would never tell it at all: for I am far from being pleased, with that modern trick, which even the great Irving has condescended to adopt, and which abounds so much in our modern periodicals, of playing with the reader's feelings in mere sport, and finishing by assuring him that it was a joke! For my own part I *read* on the same principle that I *eat* and *drink*, and would no more think of deceiving the feelings and expectations of those who honor me with their attention, than I would of exciting the appetites of my guests by savoury smelling dishes, with a practical joke of bare bones beneath the covers. But *apropos* of eating, I have to tell you how soup is *sometimes* made, “and then to dinner with what appetite you may.”

About half past five last Wednesday evening I took my place in the stage, (as the matter cannot be immediately brought

before a jury, my lawyer has advised me to avoid using names,) dressed in a thick great coat as the weather seemed doubtful, and I had been suffering with a low fever for some days before. I had a hundred dollar note and some loose cash, in my pocket, and an excellent gold repeater, with rather showy seals, in my fob. But what I was chiefly anxious about was a travelling case containing draughts to the amount of five thousand dollars, with which I had been entrusted by the house of P. S. & Co.

When I first entered the stage I observed that there was a stout man, wrapped in a rough horseman's cloak, sitting in one corner of it; who proved to be the only passenger besides myself. Nothing particular occurred until we had started unless it be worth while to mention that in getting in, the stranger would not move his leg, although much in my way. He might have been asleep—but it looked rude. So far, however, there was nothing which could have raised suspicion in the most apprehensive mind, and I am far from considering myself as belonging to that class. On this night in particular, I perfectly remember the firm tone of my nerves, and the careless indifference with which I started a common place subject, that I might discover whether my *Compagnon de voyage* was as polished in his conversation as in his manners; for the affair of the leg had nettled me. The topic which happened to be the uppermost in my thoughts was the recent elopement of Perryman, the clerk in the English Navy Pay Office. Having commented on the great number of defaulters which we have seen of late, I remarked to my unknown friend in the cloak the singular confidence which mercantile men place in people who are unknown to them; "and yet" answered he, dryly, "you ride in a stage with people you do not know, and trust yourself to a driver you do not know." The answer made me fairly start; but as I never form my opinions of people hastily, I turned the conversation and endeavoured to examine the complexion of my muffled friend's mind a little further. "It is very cold sir" said I, "you will find it a d—d deal colder on—heights" was the answer! A chill ran through me at the idea, and I regarded the bluff stranger with an eye of suspicion, as

I considered the ominous nature of his replies. "You venture in a stage sir, with people you do not know." "You will be a d—d deal colder sir on—heights?" They might be casual observations, but the first sounded very like—Sir I have you in a room six feet by four, and the latter I thought no bad hint at murder. But having as much courage as my neighbours, I cannot say that I felt any sensation beyond a slight distrust. My wish, however, for conversation was at an end, and sinking back in the corner of the stage, I amused myself with taking a more minute survey of my companion as the passing light of the street lamps flashed full upon his face, and shewed his enormous shadow upon the opposite side of the coach.

There is something very unpleasant in that kind of light even when it discovers faces that you are acquainted with—it gives them such a ghastly look—but as to the physiognomy that was now alternately staring me in the face, and retreating into ten fold darkness, like the figures in a phantasmagoria, no face ever glared from Salvator's gloomy canvass with a more savage aspect. His black eye brows seemed to stand from his brow in masses—his eyes deeply sunk under their dark cover, shot back the light of the lamps, and the upper part of his face, for the lower was wholly hidden in his cloak, appeared in the lurid glare as red as mahogany, and as rough as a ploughed field. My time for observation was not long. The stage, little encumbered by baggage, dashed, rattled, and bumped over the rough pavement, and in a few minutes was gliding as smoothly over the road as if it had been lined with velvet. The suddenness of such a transition has always an agreeable effect upon my feelings, and, at present, it served to banish the little excitement which had been produced by the forbidding aspect in the cloak. That aspect with all its terrors was now lost in shade, and as there was no probability that any further light would be thrown either upon the face, or the possessor of it, for some hours, I carefully settled my thoughts towards a more attracting subject, and began first to call to mind all the bon-mots and ludicrous jokes which had been started at the last social meeting of the society to which I belong; and at the reminiscence of each, encouraged as far as possible a disposition to laugh.

When this subject was exhausted, which was rather sooner than I expected, I plunged myself into a deep calculation of the expences incident to a mill that I had some idea of erecting. I had got clear through the carpenter's bill, when I was a little disturbed by a man on a white horse, riding along side the stage. He said nothing, and went away immediately; and I, as promptly resuming my calculation, was a long way in the price of damming, and banking, when the man on the horse came for a moment along side again. This time I observed that he too wore a cloak—and I then took to the dam again. I completed it—had cut a canal nearly half a mile long, when man and horse came boldly to the window. Hitherto my friend in the cloak had seemed asleep; but at this third apparition, he roused himself, gave a nod of recognition, and said "how do you do Tom?"—"Is that you?" was the reply which this observation elicited; and the man in the cloak having assented that it was he, the stranger disappeared.

Here was fresh matter for conjecture. If the intentions of the horseman were good, why had he not inquired at once for his friend. Why should he have given himself the trouble of overtaking us three times? Why should he make assurance doubly sure, by asking is that indeed you? or as I interpreted it, are you ready at your post? The oddness of these circumstances gave rise to some unpleasant ideas in my mind; but with Macbeth I was soon "wearied of conjecture;" and added, with manly resolution, if there is any mystery in these things it will be solved at ——— heights. And with this conclusion I discarded all further speculation upon my journey, and set myself resolutely to thinking again; but the process was by no means an easy one. It was uphill work. My memory seemed out of joint. I attributed it to the stage which about this period began to jolt exceedingly. By the time I was ready to "jump at a conclusion" I had forgotten the premises, and when they were recovered, the conclusion was again to be sought. I remember being exceedingly astonished at the sum which I calculated the shaft of my mill wheel would cost, and had seriously considered the possibility of constructing a wheel without any shaft at all, when I recollected that my calculation supposed the length of the

shaft to be 1160 yards,—a number previously deduced for the length of my canal, but a jolt of the coach had mixed the calculations.

A good hour was passed in this perplexed arithmetic before I fairly abandoned it, and took to whistling,—which I concluded would be easier than mathematics, and better adapted to the road. It had too the merit which induced Bottom to become musical, when in danger, and alone. It served to shew that I was not afraid, and to make the most of this merit, I chose none but warlike and manly songs, such as "Scot's who ha," or Jackson's March, and the Hunters of Kentucky, and found my courage increased their influence. Let the brave laugh at this, which I relate between joke and earnest; but they will find it not amiss, when alone, in darkness, and in danger, to subdue their imagination,—often the sole cause of cowardice—with a song. My own fears were quickly mastered in this way; and passing from one extreme to the other, I felt inclined to be merry at the peril in which I stood, and should have given my sullen companion a sly hint at his probable fate, had not every song that occurred to my mind, descriptive of a rogue coming to the gallows, said a little too much about his desperate courage before he got thither.

Whilst I was deliberating upon this matter the driver blew his horn with a startling suddenness, and in a few minutes we stopped to change horses. The light glared again upon my companion's face, which was not improved by the addition of a red night-cap. He seemed too to return my glare with a fierce scowl; whereas before, he had averted his eyes when I looked at him. These bad omens within doors made me look abroad for comfort, which I had some hopes of discovering in the driver, whom I trusted to find, a jolly fat man, with mirth in his face, and a sprig of evergreen or a monthly rose, in his bosom. My hopes were not realized. The fellow damned his horses; cut one of them over the ear with as much ill-temper as ever a lash expressed; beat his feet upon the foot-board with vehement impatience; (it was snowing,) and, lumbering down, appeared before me a stumpy, thickset man, with a round, pock-marked face, small grey eyes, no eye brows, and a turned up nose. In my opinion, villain is never

written more plainly than in those faces which have no features. I sunk into unpleasant meditation, when I was again aroused by the arrival of the grey horse and his rider. I stared instinctively at his features, but they were completely hidden. A dreadnought great coat, buttoned to the neck; a slouched hat, white with snow, and a silk handkerchief about the throat, bade defiance to my scrutiny. "Tom," said he in the coach, "You'll push on?" The other's voice was harsh with cold, "Ah when I've warmed my blood." How horrid that word sounds at times! "Hallo! to those in the house—a glass of iced water and a tooth-pick." The fellow's common place joke jarred on my irritated feelings. In a few minutes, an unshod and tattered negro girl, brought him a rummer of smoking whiskey and water, which he drank at a draught. "Tom" was again repeated, "You'll get all ready?" "Aye damn me if I don't," was the answer; and off went Tom at a gallop. This was too much: the house was poor and mean; but it was better than my next night's lodging promised to be, should I continue my journey and I resolved to stay there. I pushed open the door, jumped out, and was in the passage of the miserable Inn in a moment.

In a little back room I saw the driver talking to a man who appeared to be the Tavern-keeper. He was a thin miserable figure, with his breeches' knees unbuttoned, and a greasy cap on his head; his starved face was blotched by drink, and his eyes seemed starting out of their sockets. He was without a cravat, and at the time when I saw him, his head was thrown back, and he was pointing to his throat with his long skinny finger. "No it wont do Jem," I heard the driver say.—"I've found a c'racter useful." "And what will they say when the stage dont come in." "As you like, Joe, but p'raps you may wish you had, on ——— heights." The driver turned to go out, and stared as he met me in the passage. I made some shuffling excuse about wanting to warm myself at the fire, and rapidly revolving in my mind the circumstances in which I stood, determined to be murdered upon ——— heights rather than in that house. The maudlin leering figure, that would have stood over me to see my throat cut, with as much indifference as he would that of a pig, had himself expressed some doubt of an escape in

the latter case, and drowning men catch at straws; so I hurried back to my hearse,—it looked darker than any coach I ever saw,—with desperate resolution, and heard the door close upon me much as a malefactor of old must have heard the jar of the grate which shut him in the den of a tiger. One paw of the human tiger with whom I was enclosed, was now visible; it was a coarse brown mass, as big as a loaf, with lumpy knuckles, and short stunted nails. A Jackson\* fist, that would have written its owner's name upon a wall with a hundred weight hanging from each finger. But the very strength of my suspicions had given me courage. Blood and thunder! said I to myself,—size is not courage, (was it not yesterday that I saw a three weeks old opossum whip a bear?) and can not I fasten upon this man, as it clung to the bear's nose?—I drew back into the corner for a spring, and fumbled in my pocket for my penknife.

The stage dragged heavily through the snow, and before an hour was elapsed I had fallen into a disturbed slumber. Strange dreams came upon me, I thought I was a mouse watched by a rattle snake. I received a new sense. I knew what fascination was. Even now the glaring eye of the serpent terrifies me—I wished to run into its jaws that it might look at me no longer. A change came to my dream: I was myself again—the snake was a black snake curled round my throat and tightening its horrid folds until I gasped for breath; its fiery eyes were staring me in the face,—they enlarged every moment—dark eye brows grew over them—choked and trembling with horror I awoke. The aspect of the snake settled rapidly into the stern visage of the villain in the cloak; the moon had risen, and shone full upon it. His gigantic hand was round my throat, and grasped it like a collar of iron. I had no power of utterance, hardly of action, but with a desperate effort I drove my pen knife at his heart. Twice! thrice, I repeated the blow! I felt the villain loosen his hold: he fumbled in his cloak: a dirk flashed across the window, and in another moment—I know no further, there was a noise,—a crash as if the world was going to wreck—a pierce-

\* The Field Marshal, not the General.—Vide Don Juan for the character of this illustrious man.

ing pain. Was this death? I did not know, I was senseless. In one moment, my fears, my agonies, my struggles and my hopes were over! I felt no more than the log which the axe hews for the fire. Neither do I know how long this lasted, but imperceptibly that dreadful feeling of returning life which Byron has so forcibly described in Mazeppa, grew upon me. I drew a long, low, quivering breath—the blood rushed in gushes to my heart, I felt cold, sick and heavy, my eyes slowly opened, and when the objects before me ceased to reel, I found myself stretched in the snow.

I had been dragged apparently from the coach, which was upset beside me. A group of men, at a little distance, among whom I plainly distinguished the man with the eye brows, his friend Tom, and the round faced pock-marked driver, were busy examining my travelling case. The five thousand was plainly their prey, and my life was doubtless to be taken as the security: but before I could reflect upon this horrible transaction, Tom said something which I did not hear, and the group approached me: they tumbled me over as if I had been a sack, and having placed me before a fellow, on a horse, we started off at a smart trot which lasted about five minutes, when we stopped at a mean low cottage,—for I ventured to open one eye to examine it. A light was brought to the door and I shut my eyes again as close as if they were already sealed forever. In a moment I was taken down from the horse, and carried into the house, where they appeared to place me on a sort of bench, leave me there, and go out of the room; the man of the house observing that I should never move again, and Tom answering, in his harsh quick manner—"till we take him to his grave my friend."

Recovered to life only to be told that the grave was yawning for me, and what a grave! I had seen enough to guess that I should be huddled into some dark corner, my limbs probably broken, whilst the breath of life was yet in my body, to make it large enough. Why to G—d, I thought did you not finish your bloody work at once, and stab as butchers who know how to kill. Must I be dragged again into life only to be again deprived of it? I sickened at the idea, and fainted.

On recovering my senses I saw that the room in which I lay was a wash house at-

tached to the cottage; in one corner stood a large cauldron, that a woman was filling with water, and in another a heap of dirty clothes. The woman had apparently finished her preparations for the night and passed me to go out. Wretch! thought I, can you thus calmly pursue your common avocations with the mangled body of your associates' victim before you? I closed my eyes as she passed me, but I heard her stop and say with a tone of deep compassion—"poor creature!" O how sweetly did those two words sound to my ear! They awakened at once a thousand hopes of life, when all hope seemed extinguished. I was on the point of throwing myself at her feet, and entreating her assistance to rescue me from a bloody grave; but the deep voice of the man with the eye brows struck upon my ear like that of the angel of death—"Tom is all ready?" "Yes." "Have you cut his throat?" "No, little Bill has gone for the knife." "Come then let's carry him out." Heavens! there was no time to be lost! I opened my eyes; the woman was gone; there was no one in the room with me, but I could see the dark shadows of the men on the wall of that adjoining, and through that room, or through a window over my head, was the only way of leaving the house.

What was to be done? to alarm them by opening the window and then to crawl through that high and narrow aperture? It was certain death!—A thought occurred to me. I sprang up; undid the hasp of the window, lifted the lid of the cauldron without noise, flung a log at the window that sent it flying open with a clatter which must have been heard all over the house, and jumping into the cauldron, had the lid above my head in a moment. The scheme succeeded. Half a dozen men rushed into the room with oaths and exclamations. They d—d my b—d for having so much strength left in me;—and all but Tom rushed out of the house to follow my supposed flight in the garden. I could hear this cool shrewd villain calculating the probability of the feat I seemed to have performed; and my heart beat thick as I heard him admit that "it were possible." At this moment the woman returned—her exclamations were boundless. She was certain I was dead!—it must have been my ghost that fetched my body away! She was glad I was gone, dead or alive. She did not like such murderous doings, and would have helped me herself, if she



could have done it. I thanked her from the bottom of my soul. But Tom was in no hurry to depart. "It was just day," he said, "the snow on the ground, and not a bush upon the heights—that he will be taken and sawed out is a done thing." The kind hearted woman trusted that I should be delivered out of their hands; and at the same time I heard her rummaging among the wood below the cauldron where I lay. Poor creature! she little knew what she was about; but fear has quick ears, and I soon began to comprehend by the murmur below me, that she had lighted the fire. Confined as I was in a large copper vessel, directly over the furnace, the reverberation was prodigious; and magnified by the increased acuteness of my senses. The flame seemed perfectly to roar and bellow below me. Still the effect was not at first unpleasant. I had the greater hopes that Tom would go, in a few minutes, and a mass of cold water, which had nearly chilled me to death, could not in that time become warmer than an ordinary warm bath. But as my evil genius would have it—(I almost cursed the whole sex,—notwithstanding this villain's infamous character, and the proof he had given of deserving it,) the woman was in love with him! and there she held him to whimper and complain about some handkerchief he had given another girl, whilst I was boiling with apprehension and the heat of the water. The first sensation of pain was in my left foot. I had lost the shoe of this foot, in being conveyed to the house; and the hot copper was intolerable to my toes; I crossed the left leg over the right, and for a minute or two, all was well. "Tom," said the girl, "you are a villain!" I agreed with her, but my back touched the cauldron, and the heat began to get unbearable. I could hear no more of her complaints. I had enough to attend to at home. I shrunk up into half my natural dimensions, and stood on the right toe, with my fingers over the edge—the lid removed a little, "What the devil noise was that" said Tom, "Only the steam lifting the cover." "You will hear any thing but what I say," replies the girl, and added "will nothing warm you." O G—d! thought I, I wish he was in the kettle. But now my feelings became past bearing. The steam

stifled me; the burning copper pierced me to the soul. The hot bubbles were rising ever within my clothes,—one moment more and Tom's knife would be a mercy!—Yes! one minute and no longer could I submit to this agony.—But that one minute seemed an hour. The fire roared as if afraid I should escape from it. The boiling steam eddied round my head, and penetrated in my ears, my mouth, my nose,—causing me inconceivable agony. The eye-lids I found are extremely sensible, and the very humours of my eyes seemed boiling beneath them. "Good night," I could have heard no other word! "Good night." Merciful Heaven! but one moment more—"He's gone!" No! it is the creaking of the door! No! 'twas this d—d simmering—At last!—at last! the water ceased to burn me. My feelings were too much excited to feel it.—When, as I lifted the lid, I heard the door open—and "O Sukey, I forgot!"—I heard no more. I sank back into my now boiling kettle; and the horrid villain who had perceived the lifting of the lid—jumped instantly upon the top of it, and struck his heels with pleasure against the furnace as he comprehended my fate.

Further, Messrs. Editors, I can scarcely inform you. I recollect something of being dragged out of the kettle, but my first distinct perceptions found me in the bed where I now am, bandaged from head to foot, and with a surgeon feeling my pulse. He is very particular with respect to persons speaking to me, and says I have yet some fever, though I shall probably do well.

P. S. 12 o'clock. I have opened my letter to say that in conversing with my attendants just now, they would willingly persuade me that I received a blow in the head when the stage was upset, and have been in a brain fever ever since. The scuffle in the stage they say I must have dreamt; and even that leering rascal at the Inn, they assert, was merely asking the driver to take another glass of liquor. You see they are evidently afraid to acknowledge the horrid facts that occurred, for fear of alarming me.

Four o'clock in the morning. As my money and watch are safe, I think I *must* have dreamed of the scuffle, but of the boiling I am certain.

P. Z.

## JEFFERSONIANA.

## No. 2.— METEOROLOGY.

The following meteorological journal, made by Mr. Jefferson from his own observations, is presented to the reader, not only because it furnishes a better and more authentic account of our climate than can be found elsewhere, but because it shews the diversified character of his mental pursuits, and the philosophical views he was accustomed to take of every subject, however familiar or unpromising.

We have also received some remarks on this paper, which we have been obliged to postpone to our next number, for want of room.

“1817, January. Having been stationary at home since 1809, with opportunity

and leisure to keep a meteorological diary, with a good degree of exactness, this has been done: and, extracting from it a term of seven years complete, to wit from January 1, 1810, to December 31, 1816, I proceed to analyze it in the various ways, and to deduce the general results, which are of principal effect in the estimate of climate. The observations, three thousand nine hundred and five, in the whole, were taken before sunrise of every day; and again between three and four o'clock P.M. On some days of occasional absence they were necessarily omitted. In these cases the averages were taken from the days of the same denomination in the other years only, and in such way as not sensibly to affect the average of the month, still less that of the year, and to be quite evanescent in their effect on the whole tenor of seven years.

*A table of thermometrical observations, made at Monticello, from January 1, 1810, to December 31, 1816.*

	1810.			1811.			1812.			1813.			1814.			1815.			1816.			mean of each month.
	max.	mean	min.	max.	mean	min.	max.	mean	min.	max.	mean	min.	max.	mean	min.	max.	mean	min.	max.	mean	min.	
Jan.	54	38	66	20	39	68	52	34	53	13	35	59	16	36	55	8	35	60	16	34	51	36
Feb.	12	43	73				21	40	75	19	38	65	14	42	65	16	36	57	15	41	62	40
Mar.	20	41	61	28	44	78	31	46	70	28	48	71	13	43	73	31	54	80	25	48	75	46
April	42	55	81	36	58	86	31	56	86	40	59	80	35	59	82	41	60	82	30	49	71	56
May	43	64	88	46	62	79	39	60	86	46	62	81	47	65	91	37	58	77	43	60	79	61
June	53	70	87	58	73	89	58	74	92	54	75	93	57	69	87	54	71	88	51	70	86	72
July	60	75	88	60	76	89	57	75	91	61	75	94	60	74	89	63	77	89	51	71	86	75
Aug.	55	71	90	59	75	85	61	71	87	62	74	92	56	75	88	58	72	84	51	73	90	73
Sep.	50	70	81	50	67	81	47	68	75	54	69	83	52	70	89	45	61	82	54	63	90	67
Oct.	32	57	82	35	62	85	39	55	80	32	53	70	37	58	83	38	59	76	37	57	73	57
Nov.	27	44	69	32	45	62	18	43	76	20	48	71	23	47	71	20	46	70	24	46	71	45
Dec.	14	32	62	20	38	49	13	35	63	18	37	53	18	38	59	12	36	57	23	43	69	37
mean of clear weather.	55			58			55			56			56			55			54			55

The table of thermometrical observations, shews the particular temperature of the different years from 1810 to 1816 inclusive. The most interesting results, however, are that the range of temperature with us may be considered as within the limits of  $5\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  and  $94^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit's thermometer; and that  $55\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  degrees as its mean and characteristic measure. These degrees fix the laws of the animal and vegetable races which may exist with us; and the comfort also of the human inhabitant, so far as depends on his sensations of heat and cold. Still it must be kept in mind that this is but the temperature of Monticello; that in the northern and western parts of the State, the mean and extremes are probably something lower, and in the southern and eastern, higher. But this place is so nearly central to the whole State, that it may fairly be considered as the mean of the whole.

It is a common opinion that the climates of the several States, of our Union, have undergone a sensible change since the dates of their first settlements; that the degrees both of cold and heat are moderated. The same opinion prevails as to Europe; and facts gleaned from history give reason to believe that, since the time of Augustus Cæsar, the climate of Italy, for example, has changed regularly, at the rate of  $1^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit's thermometer for every century. May we not hope that the methods invented in later times for measuring with accuracy the degrees of heat and cold, and the observations which have been and will be made and preserved, will at length ascertain this curious fact in physical history?

Within the same period of time, about fifty morning observations, on an average of every winter, were below the freezing point, and ten freezing days for the average of our winters.

It is generally observed that when the thermometer is below  $55^{\circ}$ , we have need of fire in our apartments to be comfortable. In the course of these seven years, the number of observations below  $55^{\circ}$ , was as follows:

In 1810 195 mornings and 124 afternoons

'11 176	102
'12 209	137
'13 197	123
'14 190	127
'15 189	116

In 1816 172	116
Average 190	120

Whence we conclude that we need constant fires four months in the year, and in the mornings and evenings a little more than a month preceding and following that time.

The first white frost in	
1809-10 was October 25,	the last April 11
'10-11	18, Mar. 19
'11-12	21, April 14
'12-13	9, "
'13-14	22, April 13
'14-15	24, May 15
'15-16	26, April 3
'16-17	7, " 12

But we have seen in another period, a destructive white frost as early as September.

Our first ice in	
1809-10 was in Nov. 7,	the last April 10.
'10-11 " Oct. 24,	" Mar. 8.
'11-12 " Nov. 15,	" April 12.
'12-13 " " 13,	" Mar. 25.
'13-14 " " 14,	" " 17.
'14-15 " " 9,	" " 22.
'15-16 " " 13,	" " 19.
'16-17 " " 7,	" " 20.

The quantity of water (including that of snow) which fell in every month and year of the term was as follows.

	Average	1810.	1811.	1812.	1813.	1814.	1815.	1816.	Average
	of every								month.
Jan.	4.57	2.094	3.360	1.715	4.179	6.028	4.86	6.854	3.473
Feb.	4.75	3.351	4.060	1.763	3.750	5.90	2.303	3.473	3.473
Mar.	3.175	2.955	3.099	1.550	3.365	3.86	3.825	3.473	3.473
April	4.316	4.312	3.328	3.646	5.711	1.38	3.23	3.473	3.473
May	2.134	3.779	14.761	6.670	7.134	1.57	6.19	5.064	3.473
June	3.769	3.774	3.563	6.790	3.530	3.94	0.33	3.473	3.473
July	5.729	3.206	3.025	3.219	13.854	7.29	4.23	6.65	3.473
Aug.	1.853	3.509	3.363	3.324	6.334	3.46	0.50	4.010	3.473
Sept.	4.806	3.660	6.030	14.284	6.534	9.33	9.91	5.964	3.473
Oct.	0.731	7.337	5.164	4.204	2.632	9.73	3.23	3.401	3.473
Nov.	0.741	6.791	1.151	3.633	4.734	3.09	0.95	3.209	3.473
Dec.	0.706	9.5	1.291	6.059	1.250	3.25	9.36	1.534	3.473
Average	of 49.000	47.451	53.095	45.719	60.563	41.503	39.87	47.218	in year.

From this table we observe that the average of the water which falls in a year is  $47\frac{1}{2}$  inches, the minimum  $41\frac{1}{2}$ , and the

maximum 61 inches, from tables kept by the late Col. James Madison, father of the President of the United States, at his seat about miles from Monticello, from the year 1794 to 1801 inclusive, the average was  $43\frac{1}{2}$  inches, the minimum  $35\frac{3}{4}$  inches, and the maximum 52 inches.

During the same seven years there fell six hundred and twenty two rains, which gives eighty nine rains every year, or one for every four days; and the average of the water falling in the year being  $47\frac{1}{2}$  inches, gives fifty three cents of an inch for each rain, or ninety three cents for a week. Were this to fall regularly, or nearly so, through the summer season, it would render our agriculture most prosperous, as experience has sometimes proved.

Of the three thousand nine hundred and five observations made in the course of the seven years, two thousand seven hundred and seventy six were fair; by which I mean that the quarter part of the sky was unclouded. This shows our proportion of fair weather to be as two thousand seven hundred and seventy six to one thousand one hundred and twenty nine, or as five to two, equivalent to five fair days to the week. Of the other two, one may be more than half clouded, the other wholly so. We have then five of what astronomers call "observing days" in the week; and of course a chance of five to two of observing any astronomical phenomenon which is to happen at any fixed period of time.

The snows of Monticello amounted to the depth in

1809-10 of  $16\frac{1}{2}$  inches and covered the ground 19 days.

'10-11 "	$31\frac{1}{2}$	"	31 "
'11-12 "	"	"	11 "
'12-13 "	35	"	22 "
'13-14 "	$13\frac{1}{2}$	"	16 "
'14-15 "	$29\frac{1}{2}$	"	39 "
'15-16 "	23	"	29 "
'16-17 "	$19\frac{1}{2}$	"	19 "

Average -  $22\frac{1}{2}$  22

Which gives an average of  $22\frac{1}{2}$  inches in a year, covering the ground twenty two days, and a minimum of eleven inches, and eleven days, and a maximum of thirty five inches and thirty nine days. According to Mr. Madison's tables, the average of snow, at his seat, in the winters from 1793 to 1801-2 inclusive, was  $23\frac{1}{2}$  the minimum, 10 1-8 and maximum,  $33\frac{1}{2}$  inches,

but I once (in 1772) saw a snow here three feet deep.

The course of the wind having been one of the circumstances regularly observed, I have thought it better, from the observations of the seven years, to deduce an average for a single year and for every month of the year. This table accordingly exhibits the number of days in the year, and in every month of it, during which each particular wind, according to these observations may be expected to prevail. It will be for physicians to observe the coincidences of the diseases of each season, with the particular winds then prevalent, the quantities of heat and rain. &c.

	N.	N.E.	E.	S.E.	S.	S.W.	W.	N.W.	Total.
Jan.	4	1	1	1	5	7	5	7	31
Feb.	3	3	1	1	4	6	4	6	28
Mar.	5	3	2	2	6	5	3	5	31
Apr.	4	2	3	2	7	6	2	4	30
May	5	2	1	1	6	6	4	6	31
June	5	2	1	1	4	6	5	6	30
July	6	2	1	1	6	5	5	5	31
Aug.	6	3	1	2	3	6	4	6	31
Sept.	6	5	1	2	4	4	3	5	30
Oct.	5	2	1	1	5	5	5	7	31
Nov.	7	2	1	1	5	5	5	7	30
Dec.	5	2	1	1	5	5	5	7	31
Total	61	29	15	16	60	66	47	71	365

	Dry.	Wet.
N.	4	1
N.E.	3	1
E.	3	1
S.E.	$3\frac{1}{2}$	1
S.	4	1
S.W.	6	1
W.	$9\frac{1}{2}$	1
N.W.	$10\frac{1}{2}$	1

In this separate table I state the relation which each particular wind appeared to have with rain or snow: for example, of every five north winds, one was either accompanied with rain or snow, or followed by it before the next observation, and four were dry. Of every four northeasters, one was wet and three, dry. The table consequent-

ly shows the degree in which any particular wind enters as an element into the generation of rain, in combination with the temperature of the air, state of the clouds, &c.

An estimate of climate may be otherwise made from the advance of the spring, as manifested by animal and vegetable subjects. Their first appearance has been observed as follows.

The red maple comes into blossom,

	from Feb. 18 to Mar. 27	
The Almond	Mar. 6 to Apr. 5	
The Peach	" " 9 " 4	
The Cherry	" " 9 " 13	
The Tick appears	" 15 " 2	
The house Martin	" 18 " 9	
Asparagus comes first to table	" 23 " 14	
The Shad arrives	" 28 " 18	
The Lilac blossoms	April 1 " 28	
The Red Bud	" 2 " 19	
The whip-poor-will is heard	" 2 " 21	
The Dogwood blossoms	" 3 " 22	
The wood robin is heard	" 20 to May 1	
The Locust blossoms	" 25 " 17	
The Fringe tree	" 27 " 5	
The red clover first blossoms	May 1 to	
The garden pea first at table	" 3 " 25	
Strawberries first ripe	" 3 " 25	
Fire flies appear	" 8 to	
Cherries first ripe	" 18 " 25	
Artichokes first at table	" 28 to June 12	
Wheat harvest begins	" June 21 " 29	
Cucumbers first at table	" 22 to July 5	
Indian corn first at table	" July 4 " 21	
Peaches first ripe	" 7 " 21	
The Sawyer first heard	" 14 " 20	

The natural season of the vegetable is here noted, and not the artificial one produced by glasses, hot-beds &c. which, combining art with nature, would not be a test of the latter separately.

Another index of climate may be sought in the temperature of the waters issuing

from fountains. If the deepest of the reservoirs feeding these may be supposed at like distances from the surface, in every part of the globe, then the lowest temperature of water, flowing from them, would indicate that of the earth from and through which it flows. This will probably be found highest under the equator, and lower as you recede towards either pole. On an examination of 15 springs in the body of the hill of Monticello, the water of the coolest was at 54½, the outer air being then at 75°. A friend assures me that in an open well of 28 feet depth in Maine, lat. 44° 22', and in the month of August, the water in it being then 4 feet deep, its temperature was 52° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, that of the water of Kenebec river being at the same time 72½.

Lastly, to close the items which designate climate, the latitude of Monticello is to be added, which by numerous observations lately made with a Borda's circle of 5 inches radius, with nonius divisions to 1', I have found, by averaging the whole, to be 37° 57' 51".

### ITALIAN COMEDY.

The national taste of the Italians, with regard to dramatic amusements, has, it would seem been nearly the same, in every age, and their comedy has always had the same character. Terence and Plautus found a low species of theatrical diversion in vogue among the Romans, and endeavoured to introduce on their stage imitations of the Greek comedies. But the people, too fond of fun and pleasantry, abandoned the better plays of these authors and ran after obscene mimicry and Attellan farces.

The inhabitants of Italy, a lively and sensual people, have always, in their scenic representations, looked for a strong and even an exaggerated expression of the passions. They were averse to any dramatic work, which, though composed according to the rules of art, was not in harmony with the national character. They found written plays mostly cold and tiresome. The more the player was left at liberty to say or do what he pleased, the better they liked what he said and did. Action and expression were to be, as much as possible, the effect of chance, or of instantaneous

inspiration. Their extemporaneous plays, called "*comedies of art*" (*comedia dell'arte*) have, to all appearances, a great similarity to the *Comediæ Fescenninæ*, and the *Fabulæ Attellanæ* of the ancient Romans. It is likely that in both instances, these plays originated in that peculiar species of gaiety natural to the Italian people, the lower orders of whom have remained, in this respect at least, wonderfully unchanged for ages. Thus we may, perhaps, call the use of masks in their comedies less an imitation of antiquity, than a custom originating in the national taste, both in ancient and modern times.

The comedy of art invariably exhibits four characters in masks, almost always, under the same name: this is entirely conformable to the taste of the people, who like to see persons on the stage, with whose appearance, name and language, they are already acquainted, and who give them, before hand, an idea of the relation in which they stand to each other. Each of these characters speaks a different dialect. *Pantalone*, a merchant, speaks the dialect of Venice; *il Dottore*, a lawyer, that of Bologna. The servants *Brighella* and *Arlecchino*, speak that of a Bergamo; the lover and the Lady's maid that of Tuscany. This juxtaposition of the different provincial dialects, which, in no country, have as distinct a character as in Italy, has for the people something so irresistibly comical in itself, that, without this additional charm, hardly any play, be it ever so excellent, would please them. In the same manner and perhaps, for the same reason, the ancient Romans in their farces made use of the dialect of the Osci, a people inhabiting that tract of Italy, now called the *Campagna Romana*.

In the selection of these four masks, the Italians were probably as much decided by the strong contrast of the characters they represent, as by certain circumstances of the period, when they were first brought on the stage. *Pantalone* is quick and lively; the *Doctor* slow and sententious; *Brighella* cunning and of good address; *Arlecchino* simple and clownish. This comedy of art, consisting of a series of improbable and absurd adventures, mixed up with obscene jests and coarse pleasantry, prevailed throughout Italy. Foreigners treated them with sovereign contempt, the better sort of Italians were ashamed of

them, and yet the people were only pleased with this species of comedy, which always attracted crowds to the other, whilst another species, called "*Comedia Italia*," "the learned comedy," an imitation of the French Drama, was played to empty houses. Though the objections to the *Comedia dell'arte* were well founded, yet the Italian people were in the right, for that species of comedy, alone, was in harmony with the national character and taste, it alone painted with true colours, Italian gaiety and Italian manners.

Among those Italian writers, who, from the beginning of the last century, have endeavoured to improve the taste respecting the theatrical amusements of their countrymen, Charles Goldoni was the most active. He determined on a radical reform of the Italian stage. Low farce was to be banished from it, and genteel comedy put in its place. He labored to make dramatic works of a serious nature acceptable to the people. He began his reform, by making improved sketches of comedies for the players, in the Comedy of art, and having succeeded in drawing the attention of the people to this improvement, and meeting with their approbation, he ventured a little farther, till at last, having established his fame, he no longer left his outlines to be filled up by the extemporaneous outpourings of the comedians, but wrote entire plays, more especially because the talents of the players for extempore speaking, were in his time, below mediocrity. He wrote nearly two hundred dramatic works, of which some are excellent, and none without some merit. He also wrote a history of his life and of his works, entitled "*Mémoires de M. Goldoni pour servir à l'histoire de sa vie et à celle de son theatre*." This work he wrote in French, and published it in Paris during his stay in that city, where he died in 1792. He succeeded but partially in correcting the taste of his countrymen in their theatrical amusements, and, as soon as he no longer wrote for them, they returned to their old habits.

B.

#### INQUIRIES.

The Editors will feel grateful for answers through any of the public Journals to the following questions, viz :

1. What are the prices of ordinary la-

bour, by the day, week or year,—with and without board in Massachusetts,—the same in Ohio,—in Kentucky, and in Maryland?

2. What is the difference between the price of labour employed in agriculture and manufactories of cotton or wool?

3. The difference between free labour and slave labour, employed in manufactories in Maryland and Kentucky?

## UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

### UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

*Introductory Lecture on the Study of the Animal Kingdom.\**—The Introductory Lecture of Dr. Robert E. Grant, Professor of Comparative Anatomy and Zoology in the University of London, is the only one of the printed lectures which has reached us. Dr. Grant is already well known for his numerous zoological contributions to the different periodical works of Great Britain, and as one of the Assistant Editors of the *Edinburg Philosophical Journal of Brewster*. An Introductory Lecture, which consists or ought to consist of a simple statement of the plan, which the Professor is about to adopt, in the prosecution of his course, is scarcely a legitimate object of criticism. The present discourse seems entirely to the purpose. In it the objects and limits of Comparative Anatomy, or Zootomy, Comparative Physiology and Zoology are defined. The extent and distribution of the Animal Kingdom are briefly described, and the connexions of the study of animals with other branches of science pointed out. The various uses of animals to man are enumerated, and the pleasures and advantages derived from their study.

The Lecture concludes with the following outline of the course of Comparative Anatomy and Zoology adopted in the University of London.

"The course of instruction I mean to deliver on these two extensive branches of science will embrace an account of the structure, functions, history, and classification of existing animals, and a description of the fossil species. The lec-

tures and demonstrations will be illustrated by an extensive series of Zoological specimens, drawings and zootomical preparations; the greater part of which are already collected and arranged. The classes, orders and genera of every division of the Animal Kingdom will be examined, and the most useful and interesting species of each group will be selected for illustration.

After a few preliminary lectures, detailing the objects and relations of the study of Animals and explaining the technical language of the science, the Comparative Anatomy will occupy the first half of the course, and will comprehend the demonstration and description of the organs of motion, sensation, digestion, circulation, respiration, secretion and generation, in all the various tribes of the lower animals. The physiological details and the applications of the facts to Zoology, Medicine and other sciences will accompany the demonstrations of structure: and this part of the course will conclude with observations on the mode of conducting zootomical inquiries, and on the art of making and preserving zootomical preparations.

To Zoology will succeed the anatomical details, as all scientific arrangements of animals are founded on structure, and will be divided into two distinct departments: the first treating of existing Animals, and the second of extinct species.

The history of the existing species of the Animal Kingdom will comprehend the characters, classification, habits and uses of the Animals belonging to the classes *Mammalia*, *Aves*, *Reptilia*, *Pisces*, *Mollusca*, *Conchifera*, *Cirripeda*, *Annelides*, *Crustacea*, *Arachnida*, *Insecta*, *Vermes*, *Tunaiata*, *Radiata*, *Zoophyta*, and *Infusoria*, commencing with the Natural history of the human species. This division of the course will be terminated with practical observations on the methods of collecting, preparing, transporting, and preserving zoological specimens.

The history of the known species of Fossil Animals will be detailed in the same descending order of the classes, and will contain an account of their distinguishing characters, their physical condition, their geological situation, their geographical distribution, and their relations to the existing species. In this part of the course, the connections of the study of Fossil Animals, with the doctrines of physiology, will be pointed out, and also their relations to the past revolutions of the globe." p. 35.

Since writing the above, we have received the Introductory Lectures of the Professors

\* An Essay on the Study of the Animal Kingdom being an Introductory Lecture delivered in the University of London, on the 25th of October, 1828, by Robt. E. Grant, M. D. &c. &c. London, 1828,—John Taylor, 800, pp. 35.

of Greek—of the Nature and Treatment of Diseases—of the English Language and Literature—of the Hebrew Language and Literature—of the Spanish Language and Literature—of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy, and of the German and Northern Languages and Literature—some of which will be noticed hereafter.

We are glad to find, from the recent annual report of the council of that Institution, that it prospers according to their expectations. The receipts, in the year, amounted to £59,902 12s. Its expenditure, £47,568 14s. 3d. leaving a balance on hand of £12,333 17s. 9d. The Donations, in the year, had amounted to £772. 10s. and the receipts from Students, applicable to the University, were £1902. 5s. 10d. The report calculated the annual current expenses at £55,000, which would be produced by eleven hundred students. At present there are five hundred and fifty seven, of whom one hundred belong to the Latin, seventy seven to the Greek, and ninety one to the Mathematical, class: It is not said whether these are distinct matriculates. It was calculated that the students would be three times as numerous in the next year, and four times as numerous in the year following. The number is certainly much less than we had anticipated: but by the unusual activity which is exerted by the Professors, and the liberal spirit abroad, it is probable that it will be considerably augmented in future years.

*Public Examination.—Continued from page 16.*

#### MODERN LANGUAGES.

Written translations in select passages, from modern authors, in French, German, Italian Spanish, and from the Anglo-Saxon.

*Written examination in Modern Geography, History, &c.*

1—What are the boundaries of Germany, its extent and population?

2—How many members does the new Confederation of Germany consist of, and what are the separate or combined powers that compose it?

3—How is the number of votes regulated, which the several States possess in the Diet?

4—In how many classes is the whole of the Confederacy divided?

5—Give a list of the first and second classes, and their respective votes?

6—What is the derivation of the word Austria, and at what period was it first used?

7—What is the form of Government, and what is the established religion in Austria?

8—What is the present extent of the Prussian dominions, and what is the population in Prussia?

9—By whom are the affairs of the Prussian church, and the establishments of education managed.

10—What is the established religion of Prussia?

11—At what time was Bavaria erected into a Kingdom?

12—What is the present extent in square miles, and the population of Bavaria? What is the established religion?

13—From what time does the Kingdom of Saxony date its origin? State circumstances.

14—State the present division of Saxony? Name the circles and their chief towns.

15—What is the form of Government in Saxony?

16—What does the word Netherlands literally signify, and why was it given to that part of Europe now denominated the Kingdom of the Netherlands?

17—When was the independence of the seven United provinces of the Republic of Holland, acknowledged by Spain and other European powers?

18—In what year was the Batavian Republic established, under the authority of France? State circumstances.

19—When was this Republic transformed into a Kingdom, and Louis Buonaparte proclaimed King thereof? When was it incorporated with the French Empire? State circumstances.

20—Between what degrees of latitude and longitude is Switzerland comprised?

21—What are the boundaries, extent in square miles, and number of inhabitants of Switzerland?

22—What is the present division of Switzerland? State the cantons that form the Swiss confederacy?

23—Who was the founder of the reformed religion in Switzerland?

24—Which are the cantons where the Roman Catholic religion prevails?

25—Which are the different orders of Knighthood that originated with the Crusades? State their rise, progress and decay.

#### NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. &c.

The letter from the anonymous author of the essay "on the North American Indians," lately published in Charleston, with its enclosures, has been received. While the Editors entirely approve the humane and liberal spirit of that essay, and coincide in many of its views, they regret that it does not comport with the plan of the Museum to publish what has appeared in other journals, except mere articles of intelligence. They may however, take an early occasion of presenting to their readers some of the author's arguments in behalf of the unfortunate aborigines of our country.

§ The communication of *Alumnus* on the "character of the North American Indians" has been received.

A communication from Washington "on the quadrature of the circle" has been received.

§

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JULY 1, 1829.

### ON THE CAUSES OF ENDEMIC DISEASE.

"*Nec Hecuba, causam interitus fuisse Trojanis, quod Alexandrum genuerit.*"

CICERO, *de Fato*, 15.

"Nor was Hecuba the cause of the destruction of Troy because she bare Alexander."

The recent and distressing visitation of Fever, at this University, and the various conjectures, which have been entered into, regarding its causes, have induced us to offer a few remarks on the causes of endemic fever in general, in order that the reader may be enabled to judge of the exact degree of knowledge or ignorance of the Medical Profession, regarding this obscure point in the history of disease.

The difficulties which will be found to envelope the subject, when dispassionately considered, may, moreover, have the effect of arresting those hypotheses, in which mankind are ever ready to indulge, even when utterly uninstructed, or but imperfectly informed, on a subject.

The Medical Profession have adopted three terms to express their leading ideas of the causes of Fever: these must be understood before proceeding farther.

Those causes, which are connected with a particular locality only, are said to be *endemic*; those which are seated in the atmosphere and affect a more or less considerable extent of country, unconnected with locality, are said to be *epidemic*; and those, which are produced by some emanation from an animal body, labouring under a similar disease, are said to be *contagious*—The diseases resulting from those respective causes being termed *endemic*, *epidemic* and *contagious*. These causes, it will be obvious, may not act singly, in

all cases, but may be, and frequently are, combined: for instance, there may be something improper about the locality, connected with an unfavorable condition of the atmosphere, which may occasion one place to be insalubrious, whilst others in the immediate vicinity are entirely healthy: in other words, the causes of the fever may be of an *endemico-epidemic* character. Whilst again, there may be a constitution of the atmosphere, favourable to the extension of a disease which is unquestionably contagious, or the causes of the disease may be of an *epidemico-contagious* character. The fever, which has recently prevailed at the University, seems to have been of the class of *endemico-epidemics*, in some instances, perhaps, contagious, although there was no positive evidence of contagion: some of the sick, it is true, when healthy, had held communication with those labouring under the disease, but by far the majority of cases occurred where no communication whatever had taken place.

Of the endemic causes of fever, we have the most familiar and striking example in the marshy miasm or exhalation—the *Malaria* or *Aria Cattiva* of the Italians, which is the fertile source of insalubrity in the marshy districts of every clime, when circumstances are favourable to its evolution. Experience alone has proved to us, that in such localities particular diseases do arise; but we are in utter ignorance of the precise changes, which have occurred in the air of the place, even when the *Malaria* is escaping and acting with its greatest malignity. Chemical analysis has thrown no light on the subject, and our knowledge is therefore confined to the fact, that in marshy districts some terrestrial emanation does occur, which, when

applied to the human body occasions disease.

By some writers on this subject it has been imagined, that vegetable, putrefaction is the cause of this subtle agent. By others, aqueous putrefaction, or animal putrefaction, or different combinations of these have been invoked, but there is no positive, *historical*, evidence, that any one or any combination of these varieties of putrefaction does ever occasion, even in marshy districts, malarious or miasmatic disease.

1. *Vegetable Putrefaction, singly, does not give rise to Endemic Fever.*—By vegetable putrefaction, it may be premised, is understood the humid decay of vegetables.

That malaria must be something more than vegetable decomposition is proved by many facts. It has been found, in many cases, most virulent and abundant on the driest surfaces: often where vegetation has never, apparently, existed, or could exist, as in the steep ravine of a dried water course.

Dr. Ferguson, who had extensive and melancholy experience in this matter, during the war in Spain, as well as in many parts of the British West India Islands, and who is, moreover, a scientific observer, has given some striking instances, in a paper on marsh poison, read before the Royal Society of Edinburgh in the year 1820, (See *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, vol. ix.)

The first time he observed any extensive epidemic intermittent, in the army, was in 1794, when after a very hot and dry summer, the British troops, in the month of August, took up the encampments of Rosendaal and Oosterhout in South Holland. The soil, in both places, was a level plain of sand, with a perfectly dry surface, where no vegetation existed or *could* exist, but stunted heath plants: on digging, it was universally found to be percolated with water, to within a few inches of the surface, which, so far from being at all putrid, was perfectly potable in all the wells of the camp." On their advance to Talavera, the British army had to march through a very dry country, and, in the hottest weather, fought that celebrated battle which was followed by a retreat into the plains of Estremadura, along the course of the Guadiana river, at a time, when the country was so arid and dry, for want of rain, that the

Guadiana itself, and all the smaller streams had, in fact, *ceased to be streams*, and were no more than *lines of detached pools*, in the courses that had formerly been rivers: and, there, the soldiers suffered from remittent fevers of such destructive malignity, "that the enemy and all Europe believed that the British host was extirpated."

Many similar topographical illustrations of Spain are adduced by the same writer, of great interest, but which the limits to which this article must necessarily be restricted prevent us from laying before the reader. From these, he remarks, "it will be seen, that in the most unhealthy parts of Spain, we may in vain, towards the close of summer, look for lakes, marshes, ditches, pools, or even vegetation. Spain, generally speaking, is then, though as prolific of endemic fever as Walchesen, beyond all doubt, one of the driest countries in Europe, and it is not till it has again been made one of the wettest, by the periodical rains, with its vegetation and aquatic weeds restored, that it can be called healthy, or even habitable, with any degree of safety." p. 280. In another part of his communication he observes, that malaria is never found in Savannas or plains, that have been flooded in the rainy season, till their surface has been thoroughly exsiccated; vegetation burnt up; and its putrefaction rendered as impossible as the putrefaction of an Egyptian mummy.

The very period, indeed, of the year, in which malarious fevers occur, opposes the theory of this humid decay of vegetables. In summer, the plant is more succulent; all other circumstances are equally favorable to decomposition; yet it is not then that this change occurs, but in the autumnal season, when the waters have been more or less evaporated, vegetation completely dried up and putrefaction rendered almost impracticable.

It may be said, that the experience of every one shews that stagnant pools, mill ponds, &c. are insalubrious—doubtless they are, but not from the cause that is here imagined: the bottom of the stagnant pool or mill-pond becomes miasmatic, and this we learn only from experience—the soil is exposed by the evaporation of the water, and in the autumnal heats, gives off the unknown, subtle and pestiferous agent.

Again, to vegetable putrefaction singly,

we are constantly exposed : the very grass and the decaying vegetable matter which surrounds our habitations, especially in the woods, is always undergoing more or less of decomposition. In the West India sugar ships, the drainings of the sugar, mixed with the bilge water of the hold, create a stench that is absolutely suffocating to those unaccustomed to it : yet fevers are never known to be generated from such a combination.

We are aware that endemics have frequently been ascribed to this vegetable putrefaction singly : such an assigned cause is to be found in the works of Medical writers, but it is not, on this account, to be implicitly credited. It has ever been a prevalent idea, that whatever is offensive to the senses must be more or less capable of giving rise to disease. This prevalent idea, has, in the obscurity of the subject, been adopted by the Medical Practitioner : and the opinion, unsupported by any correct evidence, has been transferred from one author to another, until it has been ultimately considered canonical :—Accordingly, when endemic disease arises, all eyes are directed to the vegetable kingdom, and if a harmless heap of vegetable matter be discovered, it is esteemed sufficient to account for the whole. Not long ago endemic fever occurred, by which a whole family was attacked without any assignable cause : the physician, however, on looking into a cellar, found a quantity of shingles, and this discovery was considered sufficient to explain every thing. A more harmless occupant could scarcely have been met with, yet, being *vegetable*, it was held to be a satisfactory cause of the disease.

The above remarks have been directed, chiefly, to the putrefaction of succulent vegetables, but, from the loose mode in which the expressions of Medical writers have been worded, it has been imagined, that they implied that *vegetable matter*, in any form, may undergo putrefaction or decomposition, and give off exhalations, capable of inducing disease. Were this the case we should be constantly exposed, in our ordinary habitations, to additional insalubrious exhalations, and ever liable to miasmatic affections : every house, which is covered with shingles, every wooden dwelling, especially if surrounded by dead trees, and in the woods, ought to be a con-

stant prey to them. This is fortunately not the case, and the reason is obvious : the shingles of which a roof may be constructed and the additional covering of flat roofs are all deprived of their succulency, and reduced nearly to the state of lignin or woody fibre, in which, as every chemist knows, nothing like the putrefaction of the succulent vegetable can take place. But let us suppose, for an instant, that such a covering *could* give off malaria, how excessively small must that emanation be, at any one period, which requires a series of years for the destructive decomposition of the substance exhaling it : and if, as we have attempted to show, the rapid putrefaction of succulent vegetables is incapable of producing endemic disease, how much less active must that slow decomposition be, which has to operate upon the woody fibre? There is not, however, amongst the various conflicting authorities on this obscure subject, one solitary individual, who has contemplated this variety of vegetable matter, when speaking of vegetable putrefaction, as a cause of fever. "It is a curious question, but one of great difficulty," says a recent writer on this subject "whether there is any difference between the results of the decomposition of different vegetables. Few observations seem to have been made by physicians upon this point, and it is only by observation that we can learn any thing. It is certainly worthy of more attention than it has yet obtained. We have heard some strange statements and ingenious speculations on this subject. The plants, however, which have frequently been considered as suspicious are those, which grow spontaneously in rich damp soils. They may perhaps rather indicate, than produce, exclusively or in any peculiar degree, these noxious exhalations. The strong objection to this opinion, is, that in every part of the globe where climate and soil, and local circumstances favour the generation of malaria, this evil principle is felt, however dissimilar may be the productions of the vegetable kingdom, however much, not only species and genera, but even tribes and natural families may be found to differ."

2. *Animal Putrefaction, singly, does not give rise to Endemic Fever.*

This position does not require much argument—yet it is a matter of difficulty to convince the world, that what is offensive

to the smell must not necessarily be the cause of endemic fever. Putrescent animal food, it is well known, is eaten, and yet not habitually, by many of the nations of the earth—the Greenlanders and Kamtschadales devour half putrid flesh with as keen a relish as the European finds in his greatest dainties. The southern Asiatic revels in putridity, and, even amongst some of the more civilized nations, game is preferred in a state of incipient putrefaction, and when the odour is disgustingly offensive, yet no bad effects are induced. The manufacture of catguts is so disagreeable, in this point of view, that the ‘Society for the Encouragement of National Industry’ of Paris, a few years ago, offered a prize to any person, who could render the process less disgusting; and an ingenious *Pharmacien*, M. Labarraque, rendered an important service to the community, by the discovery and promulgation of the disinfecting power of the chlorides, of which, advantage has since been taken in medicine and in the arts (see *L’Art du Boyaudier* &c. or “Art of the Gut Spinner,” &c. by A. G. Labarraque, Paris, 1822); yet this offensive process did not occasion endemic disease.

The author of this article has practised extensively in the vicinity of individuals, called “*Knackers*,” whose occupation it is to convert the body of the dead horse to some of the useful purposes referred to by Dr. Cooper, and especially into cat’s and dog’s meat: yet he never discovered the neighbourhood particularly subject to endemic disease.\* The tainted air of the dissecting room is breathed, month after month, and for many months, by hundreds of students, in different parts of the globe, yet no endemic fever is generated. Doubtless it is important, for purposes of general comfort and salubrity, that a pure air should always be resired, and in an unhealthy condition of atmosphere, whether of an endemic or epidemic character, disease would *cateris paribus*, be more liable to be induced. All that is meant to be maintained is—that putrid emanations, alone, are not likely to be the cause of en-

demic disease. Sudden and forcible impressions upon any of the other senses—vivid light, acute sounds, cutaneous irritations—may all induce temporary disorder, and are equally likely to do so as offensive odours.

### 3. *Aqueous Decomposition does not induce Endemic Fever.*

This can be demonstrated by familiar examples. The bilge water, in the holds of ships, to which reference has been made, does not occasion disease, unless in some rare instances, where it has become actually dried up like that of a marsh, or absorbed into the collected rubbish and foulness of the ship’s well: verifying the common saying of the sailors, that a leaky ship is ever a healthy ship, and *vice versa*.

The British ships of war, when about to proceed on a long voyage, lay in a stock of water, generally from the Thames, which is loaded with animal and vegetable matter. The quantity taken in is, at times, so great as to constitute many floorings or tiers of barrels, close to which the people sleep with impunity, although it is disgustingly putrid, and could scarcely fail to affect them, if it contained any seeds of disease. In some ships, the water is kept in large tanks over which the crew sleep in safety. They, who have never seen the water of the Thames, can have but little idea of its impure condition, yet it is preferred, on a long voyage, inasmuch as it has the property of self-purification. After it has been for some time in the casks or tanks, the animal and vegetable substances, contained in it, become putrid, and so much gas is disengaged, that it may be readily inflamed on the surface of the water: the solid and insoluble matters are then deposited, and the water becomes comparatively pure and potable.

In this case, we have a combination of *animal, vegetable and aqueous decomposition*, and under favourable circumstances for producing disease, yet no endemic is generated.

Dr. Ferguson has adduced a similar example occurring on land. At Lisbon, and throughout Portugal, there can be no gardens without water: but the garden is almost every thing to a Portuguese family. All classes of the inhabitants endeavour to preserve it, particularly in Lisbon, for which purpose they have very large stone

\* Since writing this, the author has seen a similar statement regarding the *knackers* of Paris, (taken from the 5th. volume of the *Recueil Industriel*) in the No. of the *Journal of the Franklin Institute*, for January, 1829.

reservoirs of water, that are filled by pipes, from the public aqueducts, when water is abundant :—but these supplies are always cut off in the summer. The water, consequently, being most precious, is husbanded with the utmost care for the three months of absolute drought of the summer season. It falls of course into the most concentrated state of foulness and putridity, diminishing and evaporating day after day, till it subsides into a thick, green, vegetable scum, or a dried crust. In the confined gardens of Lisbon particularly, these reservoirs may be seen in this state close to the houses, close even to the sleeping places of the household, in the atmosphere of which they literally live and breathe: yet no one ever heard or dreamt of fever being generated amongst them from such a source: though the most ignorant native is well aware, that were he only to cross the river and sleep on the sandy shores of the Alentejo, where a *particle* of water at that season had not been seen for months, and where water, being absorbed into the sand, as soon as it fell, was never known to be *putrid*, he would run the greatest risk of being seized with remittent fever.

4. Of the innocency of a combination of animal and vegetable putrefaction, we have numerous examples: those of the dunghill and of the animal and vegetable refuse in every extensive farm yard need alone be referred to.

5. Of the harmlessness of a combination of aqueous and vegetable putrefaction, the case of the sugar ship is sufficient. It has indeed been repeatedly asserted, that the steeping of hemp, which is frequently done in stagnant pools, is an unhealthy process: and the Italians have accordingly issued ordinances to prevent it: but these ordinances, as Dr. Ferguson has correctly remarked, have overlooked the leading, primary, causes, seated in the stagnant pool, the autumnal season and the miasmatic or malarious soil around, and have had their attention directed to a concomitant circumstance of little or no importance. Nor does the manufacture of the indigo constitute an exception to the rule laid down. It is peculiar in the process, as it is in the products, and besides, if *putrefaction* be permitted, the product is spoiled. Again, that these pestilential emanations may arise in marshy districts, it is necessary that there shall be a degree of tem-

perature sufficient to evaporate more or less of the water and to expose the bottom to the solar heat: the marsh must, in other words, cease to be a marsh: and the *sensible* putrefaction of organic substances be impossible before the surface can become deleterious: hence, the writer to whose excellent article reference has been made more than once, has been induced to conclude, that there seems to be one only condition indispensable to the production of the marsh poison, on all surfaces capable of absorption, and that is—the *paucity* of water where it has previously and recently *abounded*. “To this there is no exception in climates of high temperature, and from thence we may justly infer, that the poison is produced at a highly advanced stage of the drying process;” and he properly adds that “in the present state of our knowledge we can no more tell what that precise stage may be, or what that poison actually is, the development of which must be ever varying, according to circumstances of temperature, moisture, elevation, perfilation, aspect, texture and depth of soil, than we can define and describe those vapours that generate typhus fever, small pox and other diseases.”

The marsh itself then gives off no malaria, except from the part which is exposed, and the same may be said of the lake and stagnant pond. The mode of cultivating the land in some of the departments of France,—Basse Bresse, Brenne, Sologne and Dombes, consists in forming it alternately into ponds, and then submitting it to tillage: it is kept in the state of pond, for 18 months or two years, at the expiration of which time the water is made to run into a neighbouring field: the land is recultivated for one or two years, and afterwards, again formed into a pond: the consequence of this system is, that the whole country is rendered almost uninhabitable: the labourer enters upon the land, as soon as the water has been drained off, to put it into a state of culture, and imbibes the miasmatic emanations in full concentration; the mortality is excessive, amounting to one half the labourers, according to Fodéré. But these ponds are not thus unhealthy until more or less drained or evaporated: the ditcher, too, may pursue his avocation with impunity, until the water is more or less absorbed or evaporated; but, so soon as an extensive

drying and dried surface is exposed, the place becomes insalubrious. A striking instance of the increase of malaria, after draining, is given by M. Rigaud Delile. "At the time of the erection of the bridge of Felice, in order to unite all the waters of the river, Sextus V. was obliged to divert a branch of the Tiber, which passed below the hills of Magliano, leaving to time the task of filling the old bed. Half of the population perished: one single convent of Nuns contained 69 sisters, including Novices, of whom 63 died in two years."

It has been already asserted, that we are utterly uninformed regarding the precise character of the emanations from even the most unhealthy marshes, where we know, that some volatile matter *must* be disengaged. The air has been over and over again submitted to analysis, but, in no case, have any other constituents been discovered or any different proportions of those constituents than what are met with in the air of the most salubrious situations. It is not hydrogen, or carburetted, or sulphuretted hydrogen, for no such adventitious gases are discoverable on the most accurate analysis—nor is it an additional quantity of carbonic acid gas or of azote. The revival of the old theory of animalcules, in the eighth number of the *American Quarterly Review* scarcely requires a comment, as the author has manifestly too much ingenuity to be serious.

The causes, then, of endemic disease are involved in great obscurity. It may, indeed, be affirmed, that we are totally unacquainted with the cause of every endemic disease of every kind. All that we know of malaria is, that it seems to consist of some peculiar terrestrial emanation of which we know nothing. We are totally in the dark, regarding the precise nature of the locality, which renders the base of lofty mountains in every region of the globe subject to *Goutte* or *Bronchocèle*, as it is technically termed—the swelled neck, of which many cases are met with in this country. We know not why the yellow fever, is endemic in the West Indies—the Guinea Worm and elephantiasis in Africa or idiocy and corporeal deformity in the Valais—the causes are inscrutable and will probably ever remain so. Yet, at one period, not a doubt was entertained that the swelled neck was occasioned by drinking snow water, which had descended from the summits

of the lofty mountains into the vallies. The discovery that it was common in countries, where no snow was ever perceptible, at length exploded this common belief.

Our ignorance is not, however, confined to endemic disease. We know no more of the immediate cause of epidemics—of the influenza for example, which frequently visits us, than we do of the cause of the incessant vicissitudes which occur in the atmosphere itself: nor have we the slightest acquaintance with the constituents of any emanation from the subject of any one of the numerous contagious disorders,—small pox, measles, &c.—active as such emanations unquestionably are.

The extent of our ignorance on this subject will be most clearly exhibited, by a reference to the chief *ex professo* essays which have appeared, within the last few years. In the year 1820, as we have seen, Dr. Ferguson read his paper on marsh poison before the Royal Society of Edinburgh. In the seventy second number of the *Edinburgh Review*, an article was contained on the subject, which was ascribed to Dr. McCulloch, and, in the fifty-ninth number of the *London Quarterly*, several of the views, therein maintained, were combated. In the year 1823, M. J. S. E. Julia published, at Paris, a work entitled "*Recherches historiques, chimiques et médicales sur Pair marecageux*," or. "Researches historical, chemical and medical on marshy air," and, in the course of the last year, Dr. McCulloch gave to the world a treatise on the subject, reviews of which, constituting distinct essays, have been recently afforded in the *Southern Review* and the *American Quarterly*.

All these essays, except the latter of Dr. McCulloch, are now before us.

Dr. Ferguson's opinion has been already stated—he is satisfied, that malaria does not arise from aqueous or vegetable putrefaction singly or combined. "The author of the article in the *London Quarterly* seems to possess opinions nearly similar to those of Dr. Ferguson. M. Julia ascribes it to a union of animal and vegetable putrefaction, but expresses his total ignorance of the nature of the emanation. Dr. McCulloch maintains, that putrefaction, in the proper sense of the term, is not necessary to its production, but that the stage or mode of vegetable decomposition, required for the production of the malaria, is differ-

ent from that, which generates a fetid gas. The Southern Reviewer, more bold in his assertions, affirms it to be a doctrine established by incontrovertible reasoning, "founded on a vast mass of accumulated facts," that the principal source of this deleterious agent is the decomposition of vegetable substances, whilst the author of the article in the *American Quarterly* attempts to prop what, he properly terms, the exploded opinion that miasma is animalcular; and, we may add, that others, amongst whom is President Dwight of Yale College, who was extremely fond of physical investigations, have maintained the opinion that the diseases, commonly imputed to stagnant waters and marsh miasmata, are produced by animalcular putrefaction!

What do these discrepancies prove but that there are no fixed ideas on the subject?

In conclusion, we may affirm, from a thorough consideration of the matter, that we are wholly uninstructed regarding the immediate cause of any one of these epidemics or endemico-epidemics, which so frequently affect districts previously healthy: the anxieties, the interests, the fears, the prejudices and the superstitions of individuals are active on such occasions to suggest a cause—but, it is extremely doubtful, whether any adequate cause has, in any case, been discovered. It has fallen to the lot of the writer of this article to witness numerous cases of disease of this character in situations which have been, previously and subsequently, amongst the most salubrious, but, in every instance, on the most scrutinizing investigation, no satisfactory cause could be met with. Many, it is true, have been suggested, but most of them have been founded in medical or physical error and in the natural credulity of mankind.

In the year 1816, the town of Havre and several other places in Normandy were affected by an epidemic cholera, putting on, pretty nearly, the same symptoms, as are induced by some varieties of poison. The public mind was agitated and every one felt persuaded that the disease was occasioned by Oysters, which had been obtained from a new bed, formed at Havre, in earth recently excavated in the moat of the old castle. So much excitement prevailed, that Messrs. Chausser and Vauquelin were sent down to Havre, by the Faculty

of Medicine of Paris to report on the causes. These gentlemen found the oysters perfectly sound—that the symptoms were merely those of an accidental epidemic and that the whole of the excitement had originated from jealousy towards the new establishment. The result proved the correctness of their report.

A medical gentleman was one of the witnesses on a trial, respecting a nuisance, where the writer of this article was a witness on the opposite side. He deposed, that an infected gas had passed in at the key-hole of a door and attacked a child, lying asleep in its crib, with a malady that proved fatal. The nuisance, complained of, was the smoke from a manufactory of the spirit of coal tar. The assigning of such a cause was frivolous in the extreme. The disease, under which the child labored, was hydrocephalus or water in the head, and might have occurred, as it does occur, in any situation.

Unfortunately, the public, instead of judging for themselves, are induced to adopt, without reservation, every phantasy, provided it emanates from one of the profession, and on subjects, frequently, where the extra-professional are as capable of arriving at correct conclusions as the professional. This is to be deplored. Medicine is physical in its nature,—physico-moral in its investigation and practice, and no assertion ought to be received, especially on a matter of this nature, merely because it proceeds from a medical practitioner. The reasons ought to be rigidly examined. They should be weighed in those scales which would be employed for testing the validity of any other assertion, and, until this course is adopted, we cannot expect to witness that improvement in the theory and in the practice of the Profession, which is in every point of view, so desirable an object.

Z.Y.

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### CHEMISTRY.

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In Chaucer's Tale of the "*Chanon Ye-man*," Chemistry is termed an *Elfishe Art*, that is, taught or pursued by Spirits

"When we be ther as we shall exercise  
"Our *elvishe* craft."

And again:

"Though he sit at his boke both daie and night,  
"In lerning of this *elvishe* nice lore."

## DABNEY CARR TERRELL, Esq.

We publish, to day, the first of a manuscript collection of fugitive pieces, by the late Dabney Carr Terrell Esq.—an individual whose modest and unassuming merit prevented his being sufficiently appreciated beyond the circle of his immediate acquaintance. An unfortunate and fatal duel with a fellow student, at the age of seventeen, threw over his existence a gloom which is perceptible in all his compositions, and thus exerted a baneful influence on his subsequent success in life. Mr. Terrell died at New Orleans, of the yellow fever, on the sixteenth of August, in the year 1827, at the early age of 29.

Kentucky and Virginia, (for his parents were Virginians) will be proud to reckon him amongst their meritorious descendants and as one eminent, in a department, where so few are capable of attaining even mediocrity. Many of Mr. Terrell's productions will remind the reader of the immortal Byron, whom he appears, indeed, to have taken for his model, and all are indicative of unusual poetic talent in the lamented author.

## SONNET I.

In my young days, and in yon foreign clime  
Where I did seek a refuge from the blow  
Which smote my soul, and quench'd its burn-  
ing glow;  
In the hard consciousness of blood and crime,  
I plung'd me in the follies of the time  
Where syrens smile and sparkling goblets flow;  
And then I sought the sage's lore to know,  
To catch the Muse's consecrated rhyme,  
But these were vain: the heart, all uncon-  
troll'd,  
Still on that recollection sternly hung,  
And spurning proud each thing of mortal  
mould,  
Not all its woes a single tear had wrung  
From him, who bore them silently, untold,  
Till madly to that mountain nymph it clung.

D. C. T.

## SONNET II.—TO THE MOON.

The moon is set, the thousand stars that shed,  
Of late, their beams upon the face of night,  
First waxing fainter, now at length are fled,  
Before the softer dawn, whose steadier light,  
Disperses the dark and opens to the sight,  
The woods, the river and the mountains gray:

And yonder comes the joyous king and bright  
Who bends upon the earth his cheering ray  
And rules alone the Heaven's—the lord supreme  
of day.

D. C. T.

## TRANSLATION FROM METASTASIO.

LA PARTENZA.—THE PARTING.

I

"Ecco qual fiero istante;  
Nice, ma Nice addio!"

Alas! the fatal hour is come,  
When from Matilda I must roam,  
And how, Matilda! shall I bear  
To live when thou no more art near?  
Alas! a life of bitter pain  
For we two ne'er must meet again;  
But thou—who knows if it may be  
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

II.

Permit, at least, of peace bereft,  
When my Matilda I have left,  
Permit my thoughts to linger where  
Around thee breathes the amorous air;  
Where e'er Matilda's steps appear,  
In thought, her lover will be near;  
But thou—who knows if it may be,  
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

III.

When on a far and foreign shore  
I hear the reckless breakers roar,  
Of rocks, of woods, of sea, of plain,  
I'll ask my lovely nymph again,  
At morn, at noon, at ev'ning fall,  
Upon Matilda's name I'll call,  
And thou—who knows if it may be  
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

IV.

• • • • •  
V.  
• • • • •

VI.

Of gallant youths a glittering band  
Wait but the motion of thy hand,  
Each, emulously, bent to prove,  
His faith, his honor, and his love,  
Oh God! who knows, amongst them all,  
If thou wilt e'er my name recall.  
Oh God! who knows if it may be  
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

VII.

Oh! lady, think how keen the dart,  
Which thou leav'st quivering in my heart;



And think of the despair I feel,  
In that wild word—"farewell; farewell."  
Oh! dearest! think my love how true;  
Think on this fatal last adieu;  
Think—Ah! who knows if it may be,  
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

D.C.T.

## METEOROLOGY.

The following remarks were intended to accompany the very interesting Meteorological paper of Mr. JEFFERSON, given in the last number of the Museum, but they were then excluded, for want of room.

Monticello, where the observations were made, forms the north-eastern termination of a ridge of low mountains, and the mansion house is placed on its summit. According to the Notes on Virginia, it is five hundred feet above the Rivanna river, which runs at its foot. From its small extent and free exposure, it is probable that its temperature does not differ sensibly from that of the surrounding country. The latitude of Monticello is stated, at the close of the paper, to be  $37^{\circ} 58'$ . It is proper

to add that its longitude is about  $78^{\circ} 40'$ , west of Greenwich, and that it is about four miles east of the University.

Although Mr. Jefferson's observations include the most important meteorological phenomena, we have to regret that many which are of great importance have been omitted,—such as those which are indicated by the barometer, the hygrometer, &c. It is our intention, after the commencement of the next session, to institute a regular and complete course of Meteorological observations, at the Observatory of the University, and to publish the results in the Museum.

The following table, taken principally from a memoir by Humboldt, will bring Mr. Jefferson's observations into an interesting comparison with those made in a number of places of which the mean temperatures are between  $50$  and  $10^{\circ}$ , and which are thus included in an *isothermal band* of ten degrees, in which Monticello occupies a middle station. The reader will not fail to be struck with the great difference between the latitudes of the places in this band, in Europe and in America.

Positions.			Mean Temperatures of						
Places.	Lat. N.	Long.	Year.	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Warmest month.	Coldest month.
Monticello,	$37^{\circ} 58'$	$78^{\circ} 40' W.$	55.40	37.67	54.67	73.33	56.50	75.	36.
Cincinnati,	$30^{\circ} 6'$	$82^{\circ} 40' W.$	53.78	32.90	54.14	72.86	54.86	74.30	30.20
Philadelphia,	$39^{\circ} 56'$	$75^{\circ} 16' W.$	53.42	32.18	51.44	73.94	56.48	77.	32.72
Yew York,	$40^{\circ} 40'$	$73^{\circ} 58' W.$	53.78	29.84	51.26	79.16	54.50	80.78	25.34
Cambridge,	$42^{\circ} 25'$	$71^{\circ} 3' W.$	50.36	33.98	47.66	70.70	49.82	72.86	29.84
Montpellier	$43^{\circ} 36'$	$3^{\circ} 52' E.$	59.36	44.06	56.66	75.74	60.98	78.08	42.08
Bordeaux	$44^{\circ} 50'$	$0^{\circ} 34' W.$	56.48	42.08	56.48	70.88	56.30	73.04	41.
Milan,	$45^{\circ} 28'$	$9^{\circ} 11' E.$	55.76	36.32	56.12	73.04	56.84	74.66	36.14
Vienna,	$48^{\circ} 12'$	$16^{\circ} 22' E.$	50.54	32.72	51.26	69.26	50.54	70.52	26.60
Paris,	$48^{\circ} 50'$	$2^{\circ} 20' E.$	51.08	38.66	49.28	64.58	51.44	65.30	36.14
Brussels,	$50^{\circ} 50'$	$4^{\circ} 22' E.$	51.08	36.68	53.24	66.20	51.08	67.28	35.60
London,	$51^{\circ} 30'$	$5^{\circ} W.$	50.36	39.56	48.56	63.14	50.18	64.40	37.76
Amsterdam,	$52^{\circ} 22'$	$4^{\circ} 50' E.$	51.62	36.86	51.62	65.84	51.62	66.92	35.42
Pekin,	$39^{\circ} 54'$	$116^{\circ} 27' E.$	54.86	26.42	56.30	82.58	54.32	84.38	24.62

The following table exhibits the difference between the mean temperature of each month, and that of the whole year, ( $55\frac{1}{2}$ ), as derived from Mr. Jefferson's observations. We have thought it interesting to present this comparison, because these variations from the general mean form an essential character in the climate of a place.

Jan.	$-19\frac{1}{2}$	July	$+19\frac{1}{2}$
Feb.	$-15\frac{1}{2}$	Aug.	$+17\frac{1}{2}$
Mar.	$-9\frac{1}{2}$	Sept.	$+11\frac{1}{2}$
April	$+1$	Oct.	$+1\frac{1}{2}$
May	$+6$	Nov.	$-10$
June	$+16\frac{1}{2}$	Dec.	$-17\frac{1}{2}$

Kirwa suppo .. that, in our climates the heat of April corresponded most nearly with the mean of the year, while Humboldt has found that October is more generally the month of mean temperature. Our table shows, that, in this place, these months have equal claims to this character. Excluding both, as neutral, we shall have the winter season composed of November, December, January, February, and March, and its mean temperature will be  $41^{\circ} 1'$  or  $14^{\circ} 4'$  below; the summer season will extend from May to September, inclusively, and its mean temperature will be  $69^{\circ} 7'$ , or  $14^{\circ} 2'$  above the mean of the year. It will be observed that the coldest month, is January, and the hottest, July, and that this differs equally from the general mean. M.

*Sir Walter Scott.*—Much as Sir Walter Scott is read every where, in no country of the globe is the enthusiasm for him carried to so high a pitch as in Denmark. A single number of the Copenhagen Journal contains the announcement of three different translations of one of his works; and a professor of theology has even gone so far as to recommend, to his pupils, the study of the Waverley novels, as the surest way of attaining that knowledge of mankind, so indispensable in ministers of the gospel. *Blat. fur. Lit. Unter.*

#### THE POLICY OF ENCOURAGING MANUFACTURES.—No. 2.

We must now place the Manufacturer by the side of the Agriculturist.—*JERRINSON.*

In the last number we attempted to shew that the fall of prices which our staple commodities had generally experienced, for the last eight or ten years, had so lowered the value of agricultural labor, as greatly to lessen one of the impediments to manufactures in Virginia: that these low prices of produce were to be ascribed, partly, to the policy of foreign nations; and partly, to the continual increase of our population, by which the means of domestic production were made to exceed those of foreign consumption; and that, as one of these causes would not, and the other could not be changed, there seemed to be no remedy co-extensive with the evil, except in diverting the growing excess of productive labour from agriculture to other employments.

Let us now compare the price of ordinary labour in Virginia, which, we have seen, is less than half its former price, with that which it bears in the counties which chiefly supply us with manufactures. But in making this comparison, it is in vain to expect accuracy. In Great-Britain, and in Europe, generally, the money-price of ordinary labour greatly varies from year to year, and in different districts, during the same year, according to the varying prices of corn, which constitutes so large a part, not merely of the diet, but of the whole expense of the labourer. This is so well understood, that the manufacturer regularly raises or lowers the wages of his workmen, except when some contrary change in the price of the fabric, may have, for a time, a counteracting influence. All, then, that can be done, is, to take the average of different counties, and of several adjoining years. According to such an average, the price of labour in England, as given by Lowe, from 1795 to 1799, was nine shillings sterling a week, equal to two dollars; and from 1800 to 1808, was eleven shillings, equal to two dollars and forty-five cents a week. The price of labour fell in that country, after the peace of 1815, with the fall of corn. Labour has, without doubt, somewhat risen, in consequence of the bad harvest of the last year; and it would have risen much higher but for the general stagnation of trade and commercial distress, which have recently prevailed.

Taking these several circumstances of enhancement and depression together, the average price of labour in England, in manufactures, for the last five years, is probably not less than the average, from 1800 to 1808, of eleven shillings a week; but supposing it to be one shilling less, it is then equivalent to two dollars and twenty-two cents a week, or one hundred and fifteen dollars and forty-four cents a year. The price of slave labour, in Virginia, for the last five years, cannot be set down at as much, by about eight per cent. according to the most liberal estimate. Thus:

Hire of a male slave for a year,	\$50
Board for the same time . . . .	40
Clothing . . . . .	15
Taxes . . . . .	2
	<hr/>
	\$107

It is conceded, that in making this com-

parison, we should allow for the well-known difference between the rate of hire, by the year, and by the week: the latter being always higher, because the loss of time from sickness and other causes, falls upon the labourer, in the one case, and upon the employer, in the other. But, on the other hand, the sum allowed for the maintenance of a slave is far beyond what it ordinarily costs on a farm or plantation, and, consequently, beyond what it would cost in a manufactory. The provisions annually consumed by a slave, allowing him 150 pounds of pork, and three barrels or fifteen bushels of Indian corn, will commonly not cost, exclusive of the inconsiderable expense of cooking, more than fifteen or twenty dollars; and his clothing, comprehending two complete suits, a hat, shoes, and a blanket, not more than twelve dollars. Besides, labourers have often hired, within a few years, for thirty-five or forty dollars a year, instead of fifty. By these changes, the whole expense of a labouring slave for a year, would be reduced to about seventy dollars; so that, after making a liberal addition to this sum, for the increased rate of hire by the week, we must come to the conclusion, that labour in Virginia, disregarding its quality, is something cheaper than it is in England.

But the difference is yet greater between the price of labour in this state and in the northern states, as may be seen by a comparison which we have more certain data for making. By the evidence, taken in 1827-8 before the committee on manufactures in Congress, the weekly wages of a common labourer employed in manufactories, were as follows:

In the	Oriskany Factory, New-York, \$4 50 per week,	equal to	PER ANNUM.
Tuffit's Factory, Mass.	4 38		\$234
Shepherd's Factory, Mass.	4 84 1-2		227 76
Phillipsburg Factory, N. Y.	4 15		252
Marland Factory, Mass.	6		216
Young's Factory, Delaware	6		312
Dickinson's Factory, Ohio,	3		312
The Wolcott Factory, Mass	4 50		156
			234
	\$37.37 1-2		\$1943 76
Average,	\$4.67	Average,	242 96

Thus we see that the average wages, earned by labourers, in eight manufactories, situated in four different states, are nearly three times as much as our's earn in agriculture. But notwithstanding this high price of labour, these states are able, aided as they are by the tariff, to sustain a com-

petition with foreign manufacturers in the domestic market.

It is not forgotten that in the preceding comparison, slave labour in Virginia, of that rude kind which is used in husbandry, is compared with the labour of freemen in England or the northern states, exercised in towns, and united with a certain degree of practical skill. As these last mentioned circumstances either enhance the price of labour or increase its productiveness, they should be taken into the account, and they may considerably vary the result of our estimate. They tend to make a part of the difference that has been stated rather apparent than real. But what allowance should be made for these circumstances, and how far they may affect the main object of our inquiry will be considered when we examine the objection that has been made to the employment of slaves in manufactures. We will now consider the objection arising from the higher profits of capital in Virginia.

In estimating the comparative value of capital, it will be necessary to distinguish it into three kinds. 1st. Real estate, comprehending land, buildings, and water-power. 2d. Machinery. 3d. Circulating capital employed in the purchase of materials, paying workmen, and the other current expenses of the establishment. Of these, the two last must be set down higher in Virginia than they are either in England or the northern states, and the first, much lower.

The buildings required for a manufactory will probably cost less in Virginia than in England; the greater cheapness of provisions and of the principal materials with us more than compensating the greater cheapness of workmanship with them. Our advantage would be yet greater in this respect over the northern states, as provisions and labour are lower in this state, and the materials not higher. But the price of that portion of the fixed capital which consists of water-power and of land for fuel, and building sites, depends so much upon accidents and localities, that any comparative estimate of the value of the real estate required for manufactories must be mainly conjectural. We are, however, far within the limits of probability, when we say the requisite land and water-power may be purchased with us for half the price they bear in the more populous states, and for

one-fourth of that which they would cost in England. In this case, the aggregate cost of land, water-power, and buildings, will not often exceed fifty per cent. of the sum paid for them by our competitors either on this or the other side of the Atlantic.

In the price of machinery, the advantage is altogether in favor of England. This species of manufacturing capital costs, in any part of the United States, from 50 to 100 per cent. more than it does in Great Britain. Such part of it as is fabricated in this country, will no doubt cost from 15 to 20 per cent. more in Virginia than in the northern states.

The monied, or circulating, capital for the purchase of materials and the pay of the workmen, can certainly be obtained on better terms in any of the places we have named than in this state. The value of money, or the natural rate of interest, in different countries, can be best compared, by comparing the price of the public funds or other domestic stock in each, with the annual interest or dividends. It is true that individuals cannot always borrow on as good terms as these prices of the public stocks indicate, but they serve very well to shew the proportional difference. Nor can small sums be borrowed at as low an interest as large ones. When thus compared, it will be found that the interest of money is somewhat lower in England, perhaps from one to two per cent, than it is in the northern states, and lower in these than it is in Virginia by a somewhat smaller difference.

But if money commands a higher interest in Virginia than in England or Massachusetts, it must also be remembered that we should have occasion for less of it in our manufacturing establishments, since the price of labour and of one of the raw materials, cotton, is cheaper with us than they are in either of these places: This difference ought to be a full equivalent to the difference of interest.

Let us now see what proportions these three kinds of capital commonly bear to each other. It is of importance to determine this, because they vary, as we have seen, in price, so greatly in different countries; real capital, for example, being cheaper here than in Europe, monied capital dearer, and machinery dearer still.

From the want of precision on this sub-

ject, in the witnesses examined before the committee on manufactures in Congress, we are not able to speak on this occasion with as much accuracy as we ought: most of the witnesses, in that examination, not distinguishing in the estimates made of their manufacturing capitals, real estate from machinery; some blending both with circulating capital; and others again having a part of their fixed capital on lease, or of their circulating capital on loan, without specifying the amount.

According to the only three witnesses who stated the precise sum vested in each species, real estate constitutes about 45 per cent. of the whole capital; machinery about 24 per cent. and the active, or circulating capital, about 31 per cent. Thus, according to

	REAL ESTATE.
Mr. Young, of Delaware,	59 per cent.
Mr. Dickinson, of Ohio,	33.33
Mr. Pierce of New-Hampshire,	42 "

\$)134.33

Average, \$44.77

	MACHINERY.
Mr. Young,	21 per cent.
Mr. Dickinson,	33.33
Mr. Pierce,	18

\$)72.33

Average, \$24.11

	CIRCULATING CAPITAL.
Mr. Young,	20 per cent.
Mr. Dickinson,	33.33
Mr. Pierce,	40

\$)93.33

Average, 31.11

If this be considered as affording a fair average of the proportions in which these three elements of capital compose it in this country, then, supposing, according to our previous estimate, that real estate is 50 per ct. cheaper in Virginia than in the northern states, and machinery 15 per ct. dearer, the amount of capital required by them and by us, respectively, may be thus compared:

#### NORTHERN STATES.

Real Estate, 44.78 per cent.

Machinery, . . . .	27.11	"
Monied Capital, . .	31.11	"

100

## VIRGINIA.

Real Estate, . . . .	22.39	per cent.
Machinery, . . . .	32.64	"
Monied Capital, . . .	31.11	"

86.14

The amount, then, of capital required for a manufacturing establishment in the northern states, compared with the amount required in Virginia would be about as 100 to 86, or 14 per cent less in Virginia. In England the quantity of real estate would commonly be less than is here supposed—steam engines there taking the place of water power here,—and consequently the quantity of machinery would be greater: but as real estate is there much higher than with us, and machinery much lower, the aggregate amount required in that country, for every species of capital, may not vary materially from that required in Virginia. If we suppose the quantity of real estate, requisite in England to be one half, at double the price; and the quantity of machinery to be double, at half the price, than both the aggregates and the several parts will be precisely the same in both countries.

Having thus compared, as accurately as the insufficient data we possess enabled us to do, the value of labour and capital in this state, with the value they bear in countries which manufacture for us, let us now see in what proportions wages, profits, and the raw material severally enter into the price of the manufactured commodity. In the case of woollen manufactures we derive the most authentic information of their proportions from the evidence given to the committee on manufactures. That evidence will furnish us with sufficient data for making a comparison concerning fabrics of the same material, and of a similar quality, but concerning no other; as the proportions vary, both with the raw material and the fineness of the fabric. In some manufactures, as in that of cutlery, the labour is comparatively every thing and the raw material nothing, whilst in others, as in that of nails, the raw material is worth more than the labour. In ordinary woollen manufactures the raw material is half

the cost. in those of cotton it is about a quarter. It may therefore very well happen that while a country, in which labour is high, cannot contend with others in which it is cheap, in the manufacture of the finer fabrics, it might successfully rival them in the coarser, not merely because the first cost of the latter would be proportionally less enhanced by the high price of labour, but also by reason of the greater expense of transportation.

Let us now ascertain the proportion which the raw material, wages and profits bear to each other in our woollen manufactures by averaging the statements of such of the witnesses as disclosed these facts with sufficient precision.

To determine the value of the raw material, we have, in every instance, the quantity and cost of the wool from the positive testimony of the witness, but the value of the dye stuffs and other materials will, in some cases, be computed at the rate of eighteen dollars for every thousand weight of wool, in conformity with data furnished by other cases.

Under the head of wages will be comprehended not merely those received by the ordinary workmen, but also those paid for peculiar skill, and for superintendence, and other extra services. The whole number of persons employed in these selected manufactories was 682, including women and children. They manufactured 408,106 pounds of wool in a year, and their average wages was upwards of \$200 each.

The profits will be set down at 10 per cent. on the capital stock. Although this is more than any of the manufacturing establishments, referred to, appear to have made, and some even incurred considerable loss, yet as a smaller profit would not permanently induce our capitalists to engage in manufacturing, or, having engaged in the business, to continue it, it seems not too much. This will allow 8 per cent. on the cost of the real estate and buildings; about 15 per cent. on the cost of the machinery, and 10 per cent. on the monied capital. According to the average taken on the preceding principles, the annual profits are 18 per cent. the cost of the raw materials used in a year, 51 per cent. and the wages for the same time 31 per cent. as will appear by the following Table:

Manufactories.	Capital.	Annual Profits.	Pounds of wool manufactured in a year.	Value of wool and other materials.	Number of Persons.	Wages for a Year
Oriskany Factory, N. York	\$83,750	\$8,375	0,000	\$35,000	90	\$ 17,156
Tuffits' " Mass.	40,000	4,000	0.000	21,153	55	12,105
Shepherd's " Mass.	130,000	13,000	8 10	58,100	120	24,202
Philipsborough " N. York	31,000	3,100	5,00	13,000	26	6,688
Marland's " Mass.	42,000	4,200	3.00	25,372	70	13,728
Wolcott " Mass.	126,000	12,600	0.00	19,550	121	24,190
Salmon Falls " N. Hamp.	362,000	36,200	100,00	62,528	200	42,432
7	814,750	81,475	404,106	234,703	682	140,501
Average	116,392	11,639	Average	33,529	Average	20,071

In a former comparative estimate, we considered that the whole capital required for a manufactory in Virginia, would cost 14 per cent. less than a similar establishment in the northern states; but, to balance that difference, that the natural interest of money was somewhat lower with them than with us; and that the price of ordinary labour was, according to the most liberal estimate, less than one half that which it bears in those states. Estimating it, however, only at one half, and the raw material at the same price, then the manufactured commodity which would cost with them one hundred dollars, would cost in Virginia but eighty-four dollars and a half; making a difference in our favor of fifteen and a half per cent. Thus:

In Northern States. In Virginia.		
Annual profits,	\$ 18	\$ 18
Wages,	31	15 50
Raw material,	51	51
	\$100	84 50

In comparing the same constituents of price with those in England, we considered the *amount* of capital required to be the same in both countries, the items that were cheaper in one, being balanced by those that were cheaper in the other. But as *interest* is much lower in England, we will estimate the profits at one-fourth, or 25 per cent. less than they are in Virginia. The wages of labour, we have seen, are about 7 per cent. higher there than in this state (115.44 to 107;) and the raw material (wool) we will now suppose to be 25 per cent. lower. A manufacture of this article which will cost \$100 in the northern states, and \$84 50 in Virginia, will, estimated on the preceding principles, cost in England \$68.31, or nearly 20 per cent. less than in this state. Thus:

Profits,	\$13 50
Wages,	16 56
Raw material,	38 25

\$68 31

In the cotton manufactures of England, taking coarse and fine fabrics together, it is said that the price of the manufacture is thus apportioned among its elements:

Raw material.	25 per cent.
Wages	42 "
Profits	33 "

100

Supposing the comparative wages and profits in that country and in Virginia to be as before stated, and the raw material to be 25 per cent. cheaper with us, then the cotton fabric which cost \$100 there, would cost here \$102 05 Thus:

Raw material.	\$18 75
Wages	39 30
Profits	44 00

\$102 05

It would thus appear that woollen fabrics may be manufactured in Virginia within 20 per cent as cheaply as in England, and cotton fabrics within 2 per cent, supposing we could add skill to all the other requisites for manufacturing.

The view that has been herein taken of the capacities of our manufacturers to enter into competition with the manufacturers of England, in our own markets, are very different from those taken by the Southern Review No. IV. in the article on the tariff. But although we highly respect the talents of the writer, and can make every allowance for his well grounded complaints of the tariff, we cannot assent to his reasoning on the subject of American manufac-

tures. The wide difference of our results from those of the reviewer in our respective estimates of the cost of manufactures in England, and in this country, arises, 1st. From his not distinguishing between that part of the manufacturing capital which is cheaper in this country and that which is cheaper in England. 2d. From his overrating the difference of interest between the two countries, and probably the difference in the price of manufacturing labour. 3d. and lastly, from his considering that distribution of the elements of price which was suited only to an average of coarse and fine fabrics, as applicable to any description of them, separately.

The conclusions to which we have arrived seem to receive strong confirmation from the concurring statements of many of the most intelligent and respectable witnesses, examined by the committee of Congress, as Mr. Pierce of New Hampshire; Col. Shepherd, Mr. Wolcott, Mr. Clapp and Mr. Marland of Massachusetts; Mr. Dupont and Mr. Young of Delaware, and Mr. Dickinson of Ohio, all of whom declared their belief that we could manufacture wool in the United States as cheap as they could in Great Britain, provided we could get the raw material as cheap: and whatever deductions may be made for the bias under which these gentlemen may be supposed to have formed their opinions, and however we may believe them mistaken, it is conclusively proved that we are able to furnish the domestic market with some species of *cotton* fabrics cheaper than it could be furnished from abroad, since we can contend with the British, as to these in foreign markets not only without any advantage from our Tariff, but after having incurred the expense of distant transportation.

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#### MR. ROSCOE.

The venerable author of *Leo X.* and *LoRENZO de Medicis* has been, this year, selected as one of the two men of letters, to be distinguished by being presented with a gold medal (of £50 or \$222) which the king of Great Britain places annually at the disposal of the Royal Society of Literature.

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#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

*Meeting of Visitors—Public Examination, &c.*—The meeting of the Board of

Visitors of this University will take place on the 11th. instant—on which day the General Examination will commence. This will continue six days, and, on Saturday the eighteenth, Orations will be delivered in the Rotunda and Collegiate business transacted, at which the public are invited to be present.

The arrangement of the exercises for the public day will be given hereafter.

The following is the general plan of Examinations &c. adopted by the Faculty.

1. At the close of the Session, the Chairman of the Faculty shall appoint, for the Examination of each School, a Committee consisting of the Professor of that School, and of two other Professors.

2. The Professor shall prepare, in writing, a series of questions to be proposed to his Class, at their examination, and to these questions he shall affix numerical values, according to the estimate he shall form of their relative difficulty, the highest number being one hundred. The list thus prepared shall be submitted to the Committee for their approbation. In the schools of languages, subjects may also be selected for oral examination.

3. The times of examination for the several Schools shall be appointed by the Chairman.

4. At the hour appointed, the students of the class to be examined shall take their places in the Lecture room, provided with pens, ink and paper. The written questions shall then, for the first time, be presented to them, and they shall be required to give the answers, in writing with their names subscribed.

5. A majority of the committee shall always be present during the examination; and they shall see that the Students keep perfect silence, do not leave their seats, and have no communication with one another, or with other persons. When, in the judgment of the committee, sufficient time has been allowed for preparing the answers, the examination shall be closed, and all the papers handed in.

6. The Professor shall then carefully examine and compare all the answers, and shall prepare a report, in which he shall mark, numerically, the value which he attaches to each; the highest number for any answer being that which had been before fixed upon as the value of the corresponding question. For the oral examinations, the values shall be marked at the time by the Professor with the approbation of the committee, but the number attached to any exercise of this kind shall not exceed twenty.

7. This Report shall be submitted to the committee, and if approved by them, shall be laid

before the Faculty, together with all the paper connected with it, which are to be preserved in the archive of the University.

8. If the Professor of a school shall be discontented with any measure of the other members of the committee respecting his examination, he may make an appeal to the Faculty, whose decision shall be conclusive.

9. The students shall then be arranged into three separate Divisions, according to the merit of their examinations as determined by the following method.—The numerical values attached to all the questions are to be added together, and also the values of all the answers given by each student. If this last number exceeds 3-4ths of the first, the student shall be ranked in the first division, if it be less than 3-4ths, and more than 1-4th, in the second; and if less than 1-4th, in the third.

10. On the last day of the session, all the students of the University shall be assembled in the Rotunda, when the public shall be invited to witness the results of the examination. The business of the day shall be arranged and conducted by the Chairman, who shall preside on the occasion.

Each of the Professors shall, on the call of the Chairman, mention the result of the examination of his school, reading the questions proposed, naming the students who are most proficient and calling upon one or more of them, through the Chairman, to read the answers previously selected by the committee, the black board being used if necessary. On this occasion, addresses shall be delivered, and essays read by the students, the whole number not to exceed six. The speakers and writers shall be chosen by the chairman, and their compositions shall be submitted to him for his approbation.

On this day, also, certificates and diplomas shall be delivered to the graduates; and, in general, such business shall be transacted, and such communications made as may be considered appropriate to the occasion, and of public interest.

In accordance with the above regulations of the Faculty, the following days have been appointed, by the Chairman for examination in the various schools

	July.			
Antient Languages . . . . .	10	11	13	15
Modern do. . . . .	10	11	13	15
Mathematics . . . . .	11		14	16
Natural Philosophy . . . . .			14	
Chemistry and Materia Medica . . . . .		13		16
Medicine . . . . .			14	
Moral Philosophy . . . . .		13		16
Law . . . . .				16
Demonstratorship of Anatomy and Surgery . . . . .				15

*Graduates.* The Examinations for graduation in the various schools of the University are now going on. The number of candidates is thirteen.

*Meeting of Overseers of Harvard University.* On Thursday there was an adjourned meeting at the Senate Chamber, of the Board of Overseers of Harvard University, for the purpose of acting upon sundry nominations of the corporation, and other business; His Excellency Gov. Lincoln presiding. The nomination of the Hon. Joseph Story as Dane Professor of Law was confirmed. John H. Ashmun, Esq. was also appointed, in concurrence, Royal Professor of Law, which completes the Law School at the University. Rev. Henry Ware, Jr. was appointed, in concurrence, Professor and Superintendent in the Theological school. Alanson Brigham was appointed Proctor, and committees were nominated for the purpose of visiting the University and Library, examining the Treasurer's accounts, &c. The Board then adjourned.

#### NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. 4c.

Communications have been received from N; R, ZY and INO.

The Editors have to apologize for several typographical errors in the last number, occasioned by unavoidable circumstances, which can scarcely occur again.

*Erratum*, Page 40—for Sonnet II—to the Moon, read to the Moon.

The Editors will thank their contributors not to allow their communications to exceed six printed pages, unless the subject admits of division.

Advertisements, when of a purely literary character, will be inserted on the last page of the Journal.

It is the intention of the Editors to offer, occasionally, as a premium, a copy of the 'Museum' for one year, for the best essay, not exceeding six pages, written by a Student of the University, on subjects to be specified.

Authors and Publishers, desirous of having works noticed in the Museum, must transmit them free of expence, to the Editors at the University.

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# VIRGINIA LITERARY MUSEUM

AND

## JOURNAL OF BELLES LETTRES, ARTS, &c.

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### JEFFERSON'S MEMOIR AND CORRESPONDENCE.

If there is no species of writing that so interests us as the lives of illustrious men, it is certain that our pleasure is very greatly enhanced when those lives are written by themselves. For, besides that the use of the first person gives a freshness and animation to the narrative, which place the scenes and characters of the drama more fairly before our eyes, we see the subject of the biography in the double character of actor on the theatre, and narrator of the part he has acted. We see his own views of his own actions; and although, for the most part, self-complacency may be seen to accompany most of the acts which the writer chuses to record, yet there is such an infinite variety of modes in which this sentiment may manifest itself, that even here we learn an important characteristic of the individual. One man prides himself on one thing, another, on another: one boasts in this way, and another in that; one seeks to enhance his merit by exaggeration, another by affecting modesty, and a third prefers to hint or insinuate his good qualities. Besides, it is agreeable to compare, as we often may do, the views of the writer, at the time he is writing, with those which actuated him at the period he describes. Autobiography in numberless ways, in short, affords materials of speculation and interest, that a biography written by another, never can. It is therefore that the memoirs of Sully and De Retz had such welcome reception in their day—that those of Rousseau, Marmontel and Cumberland have produced still greater interest since,—and that the meagre sketches of Hume, Franklin and Gibbon have proved such acceptable treats to the reading por-

tion of mankind. Indeed, such is the charm which autobiography intrinsically possesses, that we can tolerate, and even draw amusement from, the egotistical effusions and vulgar gossip of a player, a musician or a *demirep*, such as O'Keefe, Mrs. Bellamy and Mrs. Robinson, and all that tribe.

The American public then, will read with the liveliest curiosity and interest, the brief sketch which Mr. Jefferson has, at the age of 77, here made of his very active and useful public life; and they will not fail to regret, that the illustrious author has not given us more complete and finished pictures of the memorable scenes he had passed through, and the conspicuous characters he had moved amongst, when we find such masterly skill exhibited in these his hasty sketches. He often hits off the most striking features of character by a single touch of his pencil. Of all the distinguished individuals who have figured in the Revolution, and the subsequent annals, of this country, Mr. Jefferson will occupy a place in the history of the times, inferior only to that of Washington, and perhaps, of Franklin. His agency in preparing the public mind for the Revolution—his services as member of Congress—as Governor of Virginia—as one of the Revisers of its laws—as a Negotiator—as Secretary of State—as President, and as Founder of this University, form together a series of services that no other can match in number or variety, and they make up, by their utility and long continuance, for the want of the splendour conferred by military fame.

But we are not going to write the life of Mr. Jefferson, that is familiar to all who will read this fugitive sheet, and if it were not, it has been too hackneyed a theme from one end of our Union to the other, to

make it advisable. We merely wish to remind the reader that this man, so conspicuous for his talents, his services, his fervid devotion to his country and the cause of civil liberty, has here given to the world his own opinions of his own most illustrious acts; and that after he ceased to be the narrator of his own busy useful life, his letters and correspondence, now given to the world, exhibit his plans and schemes to improve the condition of his country, and his opinions of men and things, in his own nervous, perspicuous, and often beautiful composition. We think that these volumes will prove to the American reader the most delicious literary treat that their own country has ever afforded. Here the surviving actor of the Revolution will at once have many fading recollections revived, and learn much that was never before published to the world. Here too the rising generation will see a picture as faithful as it is spirited, of that memorable era which is sacred in his affections, to which his imagination ever fondly recurs, and of which the minutest incident is read with the most delightful interest.

But the pleasure which this work will give is its smallest recommendation. It is replete with political wisdom. Mr. Jefferson's precepts were drawn from a close observation of the characters of men as he had seen them exhibited in real life, and not as they are represented in history. Firmly persuaded that human societies are competent to their own government, and that their happiness and prosperity are in proportion to their freedom, he displays great sagacity in providing means for perpetuating that freedom, by either neutralizing the interests and passions of individuals, or by making them co-operate to the public good. No American can read this book with attention without finding himself greatly instructed in the difficult science of government, nor without a better understanding of the *rationale* of our political Institutions. On the less important concerns of life, the same quick perception of right and wrong, and the same felicitous mode of presenting the grounds of his opinions, are conspicuous. The whole too is conveyed in a style of the most engaging simplicity.

We have been favoured by the respectable editor of this valuable work, with copies of the volumes already printed, with

liberty to make extracts from them, for the Museum, and we shall avail ourselves of his kindness, by presenting our readers with extracts from them, so far as we can do it without abusing the power, or too much forestalling the pleasure which the perusal of the whole work will confer. Mr. Jefferson thus notices his first appearance in that great political drama which has so influenced the destinies of this country and of mankind.

"When the famous Resolutions of 1765, against the Stamp-act, were proposed, I was yet a student at law in Williamsburg. I attended the debate, however, at the door of the lobby of the House of Burgesses, and heard the splendid display of Mr. Henry's talents as a popular orator. They were great indeed; such as I have never heard from any other man. He appeared to me to speak as Homer wrote. Mr. Johnson, a lawyer, and member from the Northern neck, seconded the resolutions, and by him the learning and logic of the case were chiefly maintained. My recollections of these transactions may be seen page 60 of the life of Patrick Henry, by Wirt, to whom I furnished them.

In May, 1769, a meeting of the General Assembly was called by the Governor, Lord Botetourt. I had then become a member; and to that meeting became known the joint resolutions and address of the Lords and Commons of 1768-9, on the proceedings in Massachusetts. Counter-resolutions, and an address to the King by the House of Burgesses, were agreed to with little opposition, and a spirit manifestly displayed itself of considering the cause of Massachusetts as a common one. The Governor dissolved us: but we met the next day in the Apollo\* of the Raleigh tavern, formed ourselves into a voluntary convention, drew up articles of association against the use of any merchandise imported from Great Britain, signed and recommended them to the people, repaired to our several counties, and were re-elected without any other exception than of the very few who had declined assent to our proceedings.

The following anecdote we believe has been never before published. It is quite characteristic of the parties.

"I prepared a draught of the declaration committed to us. It was too strong for Mr. Dickinson. He still retained the hope of reconciliation with the mother country, and was unwilling it should be lessened by offensive statements. He was so honest a man, and so able a one, that he

[\* The name of a public room in the Raleigh.]

was greatly indulged even by those who could not feel his scruples. We therefore requested him to take the paper, and put it into a form he could approve. He did so, preparing an entire new statement, and preserving, of the former, only the last four paragraphs and half of the preceding one. We approved and reported it to Congress, who accepted it. Congress gave a signal proof of their indulgence to Mr. Dickinson, and of their great desire not to go too fast for any respectable part of our body, in permitting him to draw their second petition to the King according to his own ideas, and passing it with scarcely any amendment. The disgust against its humility was general; and Mr. Dickinson's delight at its passage was the only circumstance which reconciled them to it. The vote being passed, although further observation on it was out of order, he could not refrain from rising and expressing his satisfaction, and concluded by saying 'there is but one word, Mr. President, in the paper which I disapprove, and that is the word *Congress*;' on which Ben. Harrison rose and said 'there is but one word in the paper, Mr. President, of which I approve, and that is the word *Congress*,' "

V.

(Extracts to be continued.)

## SONNET III.

The shades of night, and night's perturbed  
dreams [ray

Yield to the morn: would that the sun's bright  
Could chase the gloom, that shrouds my mind,  
away.

Oh! let me haste to hail his earliest beams:  
The mountain tops are gilded, and the streams  
Of light upon the waters dance and play;

The choirs of birds their merriest charms essay;  
And the waked world with love and gladness  
teems;

Nature's first God bids all around rejoice;  
With one accord his children all adore.  
What dims mine eye? what but the bitter choice  
Of griefs, drawn from my heart's exhaustless  
store?

The larks sweet note recalls my lady's voice,  
That voice which I, alas! shall hear no more.

D.C.T.

## EPIGRAM.—THE FRIEND.

Whenever joy and mirth prevail,  
Tom is a steady friend;  
But when the woes of life assail,  
His friendship's at an end.  
Man's shadow thus, in sunny light,  
Will follow where he goes,  
But disappear as soon as night  
Her dusky features shews.

B.

## THE ITALIAN LANGUAGE.

The present Italian language has, evidently, a Latin basis: it is supposed to have arisen, principally, from the vulgar spoken dialects of Italy, modified by the Germanic tribes who settled in that country. During the middle ages, the written language of Italy was the Latin. Lawyers and public functionaries were obliged to learn this, because all official documents were recorded in it. Besides, Latin was the language of the church. In the course of time, many words would necessarily pass from the spoken dialects into the written language.—Muratori has collected some legal contracts of the 11th and 12th centuries, in which there are many expressions not Latin, that still are found in the Italian of the present day. By the intermixture of Teutonic words, the use of prepositions instead of the Latin terminations in substantives, and the introduction of the article and auxiliary verbs, the vulgar dialects imperceptibly assumed a form and character altogether different from the Latin: and to distinguish it from the Latin, it was termed the *Romance*, or the vulgar tongue. The learned despised it for a time; some, however, were, at last, bold enough to write in it, and these, as we might judge from similar states of society, were poets. The first poetical essays, in this language, were made by the Sicilians, in the latter part of the 12th century; but the earliest poems which deserve this name, were not written before the commencement of the 13th century, and these belong to the Florentines. About the middle of the 13th century, the poetry of the Troubadours was diffused as widely as the Romanic dialects—the *Romanic* or *Romanzo* was the remnant of the disused Latin language, exhibited in the new form which the Germanic conquerors of the Roman provinces gave it. However different the forms of these dialects had become, owing to accidental or local causes, they still retained a family likeness, and even the new shape, by which they were distinguished from the Latin, was, in all of them, essentially the same. Besides this, the nations, though politically separated, were allied in manners and modes of thinking, and, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Gulf of Venice, a point of re-union could be formed, by the possession of a common language and a com-

mon poetry. The *Romanzo* of Italy itself was subdivided into many dialects, of which Dante enumerates fourteen: all of them, however, possessed a common stamp, which distinguished them from the *Romanzo* of the Provençal, the French, the Spanish, and the Portuguese.

When internal communication increased, a common language would necessarily be adopted, particularly among the educated; and the most cultivated dialect would, of course, have the most influence in modifying this new language. The Tuscan dialect, from various causes, had this pre-eminence. The Tuscans, and particularly the citizens of Florence, who, at an early period, had distinguished themselves among their countrymen, by their political and intellectual improvement, had spread themselves all over Italy, in their commercial adventures. People of taste would soon attempt to speak this more polished dialect, though it had not then received all the improvements which Dante, Petrarca, Boccaccio, and others, bestowed on it.—Dante, in his treatise “*de vulgari eloquentia*,” mentions a common language, used, in his time, by the educated Italian: he calls it the “*volgare illustre*.” We see that, by this name, he must mean the Tuscan dialect, to which he gave the preference.

It was an important service that the three learned men, before mentioned, rendered to Italian literature, by the adoption of its most cultivated dialect; but, before their time, the language existed in a form that we cannot fail to recognize as the genuine Italian of the present day: particularly in the compositions of the Tuscan poets; such as Guittone Cino, Guido Guinicelli and Guido Cavalcanti, and of some prose writers, such as Malespini and Dino Compagni.

The earliest known work in Italian prose (*prose volgare*), is, according to Tiraboschi, a history of Sicily, by Matteo Spinello, a Neapolitan. It extends from 1247, to the year 1268, and comprises, in the form of a diary, the events of which the writer was a witness. The Neapolitan dialect prevails in it. The merit of having written the first work in the pure Tuscan dialect, belongs to Ricardano Malespini, a nobleman of Florence. He is the author of a history of his native city, which, in imitation of other chroniclers of his time, he commences with the life of Adam. For the events, to which he was an eye-witness, he is considered very excellent authority.

Dante was, probably, the first who gave to the improved popular dialect of Tuscany, the name of “*volgare illustre*.” This term became afterwards general, and denoted a language, entirely distinct from the Latin, which was the language of the learned, and also different from the provincial dialects of the multitude. We have the testimony of Dante, that there existed, in his time, an improved dialect of the Italians, though it had not yet acquired that fixed form, which this great reformer of the Italian language and poetry gave it afterwards. Every person, who spoke this dialect, mixed with it as much of his own as he pleased. Of course, the same liberty would be taken by the first poets, who attempted to use the “*volgare illustre*.” It required only a writer of superior talent, such as Dante, to form, according to his own genius and taste, a new poetic language out of the improved dialect, and the decisive step was taken towards establishing an improved national language and poetry, which would form a standard for succeeding writers. The rules, which he followed, necessarily became general laws. That language, from which, when improved, a new poetry was to arise in Italy, was, at the time of the first Italian poets, yet vague, unfixed, and without grammatical rules, though it had a manifest national character: general taste had, also, already fixed the kind of verse and the measure of syllables. The Italian *Romanzo*, in its capabilities for metrical improvement, resembled all the other languages, which were formed from the Latin, especially the Provençal, but the genius of Dante improved it and gave, to the poetry of his nation, an impulse which quickly elevated it above that of Provence. B.

*Roman Antiquities.*—Two hundred and ninety Roman, silver and copper, coins have been recently found in a stone quarry in the neighbourhood of Huddersfield, England, on the supposed site of the ancient Cambodanum. They appear to be of the latter part of the Dictatorship, and the reigns of Julius and Augustus Cæsar.

*March of Intellect.*—Not a quarter of a mile from Waterloo-bridge, London, is to be seen the following notice:—“A daye Schoole for Children, ware they are taught to rede and spele.”

## MY STOMACH!

"*Caveant Moniti.*"

"Let those who are advised, beware."

*My Stomach!*—And pray! what is this to me?" cries the startled reader. At once, then, let me declare, that the present pithy communication is neither a Notice of Lease nor Sale; nor is it my object to trade it away, at first cost, bad as the property is. Like most transgressors, I am willing that my *experience* should do the public more good than it does myself; and, therefore, I have ventured forth with the following record, or moral exposé—the motto of which may be—"*Caveant Moniti.*"

It is my misfortune to have been born with a stomach, and to have felt the whole neighbourhood thereof in a state of insubordination, for some time past. The gastric functionary, which I conceive to be the ring-leader, has, since the coming in of the *new administration*, actually proved outrageously turbulent. A quarrelsome, or, perhaps, heroic spirit, has beset it, and it grumbles a great deal about *reform*. The hint has, hitherto, been lost upon me, because I consider myself made up of separate and independent states, which never yet agreed about the rules of general government, and I have long been familiar with petty local complaints. In short, though it is as obvious as the day, that I *have* a good constitution, every thing, that happens at the seat of government, is made to appear altogether unconstitutional. I had almost arrived at a state of apathy and absolute indifference to every object, outside of my study-door, when an occurrence took place, which justice to my heirs at law, and a regard for others, induce me to lay before the public. My habits are sedentary, and I seldom go abroad; but some *very kind, eating friends*, a short time since, invited me to a *set-to*; and I unwittingly fell in with the proposal. We feasted sumptuously, and were very agreeable at first—conversed harmoniously about choice cuts, and drank wine like gentlemen. In good time, we entered upon warm arguments about elections, state rights, bargain, corruption, and other sins of the day. Noise and disorder soon followed: We took in even more of wine and solids than we gave out of words; and, when I retreated from my post, my comrades were somewhere in the se-

venth Heaven. As for myself, I revolved slowly in my orbit homeward, filled, like the primitive earth, with inward fire, and groaning under the pressure of superincumbent strata, composed chiefly of calf's-head soup, beef, porter, goose and onions, chicken-pie, macaroni-pudding, plum-pudding, custard, cream, trifle—a few independent formations—such as tarts and sweet-meats—organic remains from both kingdoms, including fish, oysters, cabbage and potatoes—together with coffee, and a very considerable *fresh* water deposit to regulate the whole. Upon entering my study, I took possession of the easy chair, stretching my weary feet beyond Symmes's hole for what I know, and, folding my arms for a little philosophy, I looked soberly at the floor, and thus communed with myself upon the high degree of disorganization within.

"Mysterious Instrument of Existence! How shall I pacify thee? How study thy whims and eccentricities? Thou art the most tyrannical of Potentates, sacrificing all the world to self! If I wish to teach thee frugality, thou art boisterous and ill-tempered; and if I offer too freely at thy shrine, thou art killed with the kindness: Day is devoted to thy service; nor is even night exempt: Churl as thou art, thou hast beset the high road of nutriment, and, like the dog in the manger, wilt neither feed thyself, nor permit others to be benefited. Nay, thou art even worse than this. Sour and out of humor thyself, good things are absolutely thrown away upon thee. Thou carriest on an intestinal war with thy neighbours, which, in consequence of ill-digested efforts, is only calculated to excite inflammation and painful feelings throughout! Thou art forever making such unconscionable levies upon thy peaceable associate, the Liver, as to stir up its bile, until all communication between you becomes cut off, and things can no longer go on smoothly. Heart-burnings are a proof of this, notwithstanding the opinion of thy physician. Reposing in the very bosom of plenty, with nothing to do, under Heaven, but eat, eat, it is *really* inexhaustible in thee to give so much trouble!"

I was here stopped by a kind of internal thumping, followed by an almost suffocating enlargement of the Œsophagus which proceeded upwards to the pharynx, and, after several ominous grumblings, I thus

di distinctly heard my Stomach make reply :

"No more of this ranting, this rhodomontade of philosophy! If you are a man, listen to plain sense, and learn to do me more justice in future. It is in vain to expect others to be more perfect than yourself, and reformation must commence with you. 'Tis I, who am so utterly neglected, that should bring the charge. Actually wasting away for want of daily exercise, and a little shaking, the legs refuse to walk with me! I cannot toss over chairs, and knock open doors, to enforce obedience; and the Head, upon which I principally rely for all reasonable support, absolutely does not seem to think at all about me. When I do succeed in calling its attention, a trifling cold or headache is brought forward as an excuse for not interfering in the matter. You have the cruelty to tell me I have nothing to do but eat, eat! And is not *this* something, when you cram, cram? Without consultation, and often without inclination, I am stuffed beyond bearing; and, if I must needs state a suspicion, not from kindness to myself, but wholly for the accommodation and benefit of others! Where is the temper that could stand this? Compelled by fate, I struggle hard to remove the burdens thus imposed; but, day after day, the labour still remains. All the world seems to come in at Cardia, and go out at Pylorus! The Doctors, I must say, talk a great deal of nonsense about gastric juice and pancreatic juice, but even verjuice could not make head against such a mass of matter. At one time, you bolt down whole charges of buck-shot, and expect, forsooth, that these are to be softened by a touch! At another, you deluge me with floods of hot tea and coffee, until there is not a dry spot to be seen! If I am calm, and at ease, which, God knows, is very seldom indeed, 'tis ten to one but you pour down sour wine, or rascally toddy, to work me into frenzy. For what, in the name of common sense, does the world take me? The presumptuous chemist, I suppose, teaches you that I am a patent, high-pressure Digester, or a Phlogistic-antacid-Concoctor! And you, yourself, without wishing to be involved in scientific speculations, think it reasonable, no doubt, that I should resemble a brewer's vat, a mash-tub, a tool-chest, or, at least, a common corn-bag, which may be stuffed until the stitches give way! Presumptuous jargon! I am out of all patience with such folly!"

I assured the angry organ that I had a much higher opinion of its workmanship; but "the steam was up," and it ran on :

"What are those anti-bilious, execrable, pills—those provocatives, enticers, and stomachics, but insults heaped upon abuse? It is the fashion, I hear, to father upon me all the offspring of that monster, Dyspepsia, and of the sallow race of Hepatitis. Nay, I firmly believe, that I am responsible for all kinds of colic, pains, and bruises. Am I not the very carry-all of Doctor's slops—the thoroughfare for pills, boluses, powders, tinctures, mixtures, and other items, as per bill? No matter how innocent myself, I am compelled to pitch, head-foremost, under the awful operation of an emetic; and for what? Perhaps to relieve a toe-ache, of which I never heard, prior to so unjustifiable an attack upon my feelings!

"Instead of being surprised at my irregularity of temper, you should praise heaven that I still hold together. Instead of lamenting the injury which, you are pleased to say, the good-natured Liver and my other neighbours sustain through me, you should regulate your own taste, and not permit that chattering, conceited, varlet, the Tongue, to usher into my presence all sorts of company. Instead of lecturing me for degeneracy and want of strength, you should abstain from smoking hot, and high seasoned, dishes, from luscious wines, from ———"

Here I lost the thread of our dialogue. Sleep was bearing hard upon me. The subject, though interesting, was assuming the rigid character of a certain lecture, about items, which could not be relinquished; so I yielded to the influence of my kind mediator, Sleep, and, for a time, forgot the stings, not of conscience, but of *Stomach*. N.

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#### ANGLO-SAXON ECCLESIASTICS.

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"He was a most excellent harper, a most eloquent Saxon and Latin poet, a most expert chanter or singer, a Doctor EORAGIUS, and admirably versed in the scriptures and the liberal sciences."

CHRON. AENON. *Leland Collectan.* II. 278.

Such is the character, given by an anonymous chronicler, of Aldhelm, kinsman of Ina, king of the West Saxons, who is said to have been one of the first Saxons that wrote Latin, and taught his countrymen the art of Latin versification. For his uncommon

merits, he was made Bishop of Shireburn, in Dorsetshire, in the year 705. He appears to have been, in every respect, a learned and exemplary man, and, according to Malmesbury, might be justly deemed "ex acumine Græcum, ex nitore Romanum, et ex pompa Anglum."

The Saxon ecclesiastics, in general, seem to have esteemed singing an accomplishment in the members of their body. The venerable Bede asserts, that Edda, a monk of Canterbury, and a learned writer, was "*primus cantandi magister*."

Wolstan, a learned monk of Winchester, of the same age, was a celebrated singer, and wrote a treatise "*de Tonorum Harmonia*," which is cited by William of Malmesbury. Their skill in playing on the harp is also frequently mentioned. Of Saint Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury about the year 988, it is said, that among his sacred studies he cultivated the arts of writing, harping and painting.

At Trinity College, Cambridge, is a Psalter in Latin and Saxon, admirably written, illuminated with letters in gold, silver, &c. and full of a variety of historical pictures. This seems to have been executed about the reign of king Stephen—the commencement of the 12th century. The Saxon clergy were also ingenious artificers, in many other respects. St. Dunstan made two of the bells of Abingdon Abbey with his own hands. John of Glastonbury, who wrote about the year 1400, relates that there remained in the Abbey of Glastonbury, in his time, crosses, incense-vessels and vestments, made by Dunstan, when a monk there. He adds, also, that Dunstan could engrave, and it is said, could model any image in brass, iron, gold, or silver. He could also draw and paint the patterns for a lady's robe. His friend, Ethelwold, the Bishop, made two other bells for Abingdon, of a smaller size, and a wheel full of small bells, much gilt, to be turned round for its music, on feast days. He also displayed much art in the fabrication of a large silver table, of curious workmanship. Ervenc, one of the teachers of Wolstan, Bishop of Worcester, was famous for Calligraphy and his skill in colours. To invite his pupils to read, he made use of a Psalter and Sacramentary, the capital letters of which he had richly illuminated with gold. This was about the year 980; and William, of Malmesbury, says, that Elfric, a Saxon Ab-

bot of Malmesbury, was a skilful architect. A monk is described by Bede as well skilled in smith-craft. Stigand, the Bishop of Winchester, made two images and a crucifix, and gilded and placed them in the Cathedral of his diocese. It was even enacted by law, that the clergy should pursue these avocations: for Edgar says—"We command that every priest, to increase knowledge, diligently learn some handicraft."

History informs us, that these acquirements were greatly prized amongst the clergy, even long after the Saxon period.

X. Y.

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### OBITUARY.

ADAM MUELLER.

This celebrated political Lecturer and Writer was born at Berlin, in the year 1779: he was originally intended for the study of Theology, received his Academical education from some of the most renowned instructors of the time, and finished his studies at the University of Göttingen. Circumstances induced him to quit, in some measure, his Theological studies and to direct his attention more especially to political science. In 1806, he went to Dresden and delivered lectures there on German literature—in 1807, on dramatic poetry—in 1808, on the ideas of beauty, and, in 1809, on political science. All these have been printed—the last under the title "*Elemente der staatskunst*." "*Elements of political science*". In 1811 he went to Austria, and there delivered, in 1812, a course of lectures on eloquence, to a numerous class; after this period he was employed in several stations of a political character by the court of Austria. On the sixteenth of January last, the news of the death of his friend Frederick von Schlegel reached Vienna, and, according to the Journals, had so powerful and baneful an influence upon him as to occasion his death on the following day; at the age of forty-nine years.

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### ROADS TO RICHES.

*Ignavis repugnat Fortuna.—OVID.*  
Fortune turns her back on the slothful.

Some business having carried me to Richmond the last winter. I took my mv mar-

ters at the Eagle Tavern, where Mr. C. one of the delegates from my county boarded; and on the evening of the day that the stockholders of the Farmers' Bank held their meeting, I was invited by him to take a glass of wine in his room. I found three gentlemen there, besides our host; and after some passing remarks on the subject of that morning's debate in the Assembly, we entered on the discussion of the management of the Bank, and of the merits of some propositions that had been submitted to the stockholders, to which class the whole company, except myself, chanced to belong.

In the course of this discussion, one or two of the gentlemen having mentioned the number of shares they held, with evident omplacency, Mr. C., who is of an inquisitive turn, proposed, as an agreeable way of passing the time, that each gentleman should state how he acquired that fortune of which his bank stock afforded strong presumptive evidence; and by way of making his guests feel easy under the proposition, he set them the example in the following biographical sketch:

"My story is soon told. I was one of eight children, and the third son of my parents. My father died when I was a small boy, leaving a tract of poor land, and about nine or ten negroes. My mother was a good manager, brought us all up to rise early, to keep our clothes clean, and to work in the farm. As soon as we successively became old enough for our labour to be equal to our maintenance, she bound us out to some thrifty man, of fair character, in the county. I had the good fortune to get into the store of a country merchant, who was a distant relation of my mother, and who was one of the most prudent and successful traders in that part of the country. I had heard he was "a tight hand" with his young men; but from the way in which I had been brought up, this character had no alarms for me. I had ploughed from morning till night; had "malled" rails in July and December; had been accustomed to rise by day-break; and I thought that my labours in the counting-house must be comparatively light. But I had miscalculated. My bodily labour was indeed less, but it was unremitting; and I was kept from dawn till dark, measuring, or counting, or writing, or brushing, or dusting, or setting-off the goods to the best advantage. When

night came, I retired to a little dirty bed in the corner of a back room, the sheets of which were not changed more than twice or thrice in the year; but, thanks to the hardness of my couch, as soon as I awoke, I was disposed to get up. I will give you an idea of what my master thought of early rising. Wishing, on one occasion, (it was a bitter spell in January,) to collect a drove of hogs which he had purchased of the neighbouring farmers, his customers, he, overnight, summoned me to receive his instructions which were to rise betimes, and give his neighbours notice to get up their hogs by the time he should call for them. After mentioning some four or five persons, living as many miles off, whom I was to call on in succession, he said, on mentioning the fifth, "by this time it will be about daybreak;" and coolly went on to give me his urther directions.

"Besides the business of the store, I had to keep the accounts of a mill, a distillery, a blacksmith's shop; and in the intervals, I was required to count off needles in papers of a dozen; separate thread and silk into skeins; and weigh out doses of salts. I remember one rainy day, when I felt very drowsy, in consequence of being kept up unusually late the night before. I expected to see no one, and was indulging in a little cat-sleep at my desk, when my master came over from his dwelling-house through a torrent of rain. After inquiring minutely about the discharge of my duties, as was his practice, and finding they had all been executed, he made me overhaul all the letters and orders that had been received for a year, and separate the scraps of blank paper they contained to write bills on; observing, that we must "no more eat idle bread in rainy weather than in sunshine."

"Thus tutored, and trained, activity became easy and natural to me, and I felt something like a reproach to my conscience whenever I caught myself idle. When I reached the age of twenty-one, my master proposed to furnish me with a small capital; to carry on business on our joint account, and to allow me half the profits. In a few years, finding that what I had made would enable me to set up for myself, I proposed a dissolution of the partnership. I had then made \$6000. He disliked my proposal, but could not refuse assent. In five years more, I was worth \$20,000; and in five more, \$40,000. I then married an



orphan in my neighbourhood, with whom I received a good landed estate, and I now consider myself worth \$120,000."

The next who spoke was a tall fallow looking man, of about fifty-five, who, with no little self-satisfaction, thus began :

"What little I have got, I have made myself. I started in life as a deputy-sheriff at a salary of \$100. I soon found that my place gave me good opportunities of speculating. I bought cows, hogs, and sheep, sold under execution, and would re-sell them to people whom I knew to be punctual, on a short credit. As I found that when there was any doubts about the title of the property, it sold lower, I took no pains to remove these impressions; and I found means afterwards, by repeating the declarations of the parties, and the unfavorable suggestions of others, to confirm them. Once or twice I was induced to receive money for forbearance or indulgence, conceiving I had a right to do so, if the debt was not thereby put in jeopardy. As soon as I had made about \$500, I began to buy up small notes and bonds, at a discount; and if the money was not punctually paid, I "warranted" the debtors, forthwith. I had in this way a double opportunity of making money; first, on the purchase of the bonds, and then on the purchase of the goods sold to pay them. I once, for \$5, bought the note of a poor man given for \$10; I warranted him, got a judgment, took out an execution, sold a cow and five hogs for the debt and costs, and bought them myself. I afterwards got \$26 for the cow, and \$25 for the hogs, on a credit of two months. My salary, during this time, was all clear as I lived among the farmers and planters, whom I visited for the purpose of collecting taxes, or serving process. As soon as I was worth \$500, I began to buy executions, judgments, and bonds in suit, and in six years I had made as many thousand dollars. After a while, I farmed the office of sheriff, and in two years made about \$8,000 more.

"There was a man who owned a fine estate on \*\*\*\* river, but was always in arrears to his merchant. I called often to see him, and weseon became well acquainted. I advanced the money for his taxes, became his bail once or twice, procured security on the bonds he gave for the delivery of his property taken in execution, and, finally, advanced him money, on in-

terest, to prevent the sale of his negroes, taking a deed of trust on his land for my own indemnity. When I had got him in debt to the amount of \$7,000 or \$8,000, I told him I was about to retire from public business, and meant to engage in trade.—I had, indeed, been purchasing negroes for some time, and sending them to New-Orleans. He seemed alarmed at my application, like one awaked from a dream. I told him that I neither wanted his land myself, nor wished to sell it under the deed of trust, if he could raise the money in three months. He replied that I might as well ask for it in three hours. He spoke of the hardness of the times—the low price of land—and remarked, that he would not have given a deed of trust, if he had not understood it would suit me to wait for my money. I answered, that I had not, at that time, supposed I should want it; but that my mind had since changed. I offered him ten dollars an acre for his land; he asked me twenty; and I finally purchased it at five, half the debt still remaining due; and as he had abused, and grossly insulted me, I felt myself no longer bound to shew him any favour. I sued him, obtained a judgment, and purchased two-thirds of his negroes, sold under execution; by which I made him repent of his ungentlemanly treatment to me. I was still engaged in the negro trade, and had made something handsome by it; but have since been badly cheated by two rascals whom I had been the making of. They took to gambling and speculating with my funds, by which I lost \$15,000. I had twenty negroes. I lately exchanged them for stock; and as soon as I can sell out, I mean to return to the old business of shaving again; and I never intend to let any money get out of my hands, except I get a good bond for it, at a price too which will justify me in running the risk. If fools and prodigals want my money, they must pay for it."

The next was a hale round-faced man in blue, apparently not above forty-five, though he said he was turned of sixty.

"Gentlemen, says he, I make but a sorry figure in comparison with you. What bank stock I happen to own, I have made by cultivating the earth. My father brought me up to hard work, and as soon as I was married, which was when I was barely twenty, he gave me a good piece of land, and five slaves. My wife's father gave her

four more, two beds, a chest of drawers, and two cows and calves. I made nothing the first year; but the second, I sold five hogsheads of tobacco, and three hundred bushels of wheat, the proceeds of which I left in my merchant's hands, at interest. I went on in this way, making tobacco and wheat, putting the money out at six per cent, and when my land was worn out, I bought another piece, and went to work on that. During this time, I raised every thing within myself. We manufacture all our own clothing and house linen. I buy nothing out of a store, except iron, salt, sugar and coffee, and a little sunday gear for my wife and daughters, at Christmas. All the other finery that they buy in the year, is, by raising turkies and ducks, and selling eggs and butter. I have now one hundred and twenty-seven slaves, three good farms, and eighty shares in the Farmers' Bank. I am, however, getting old and careless, and I find I can do little more now than keep my property together, after helping to settle my children. My negroes do not work as they used to do, of course my land don't produce as well: nor can my children sell my crops as well as I did, when I went to market with them myself. But I tell them we must hope for better times. Besides, I find that if I cannot get as much for what I make, neither do I give as much for what I buy. Sugar is cheaper, coffee is cheaper, salt is cheaper than it was, and I can get two calico dresses for what formerly cost one. If the low price of land and slaves is worse for them who sell, it is better for them who buy, to which class, thank God, I belong. So that we have not much reason, after all, to complain.

The next who spoke was a well dressed man about thirty six, who, with a gentlemanly air, at once easy and modest, said, "I ought to feel ashamed, gentlemen, to say, that I can claim no merit whatever for the slaves that I chance to own, for they are the profits of an estate left me by my father, when I was but three years of age. He died suddenly of a malignant fever, and merely had time to consign the management of his estate and the guardianship of my person, to an elderly gentleman who had been his own guardian, and had proved himself worthy of that trust. My father, when he came of age, found himself possessed of a farm in good condition; and of two thousand dollars at interest, with

his estate altogether unincumbered. He spent part of this money in repairing the house, and buying furniture at the time of his marriage. Although he left half the estate to my mother during her life, the profits of the other half proved greater, by the rise of our great staple commodities, than the whole tract had formerly afforded, and when I came of age, I was the owner of two hundred and thirty bank shares. I soon afterwards had to sell fifty of them, for the purpose of raising a sum of money which I had to pay as surety for a college friend. I afterwards purchased a piece of land convenient to my estate, which caused me to sell fifty more, and, by the change in the times and the lessening of the profits of estates, I insensibly contracted debts which caused a further reduction. The number is now brought down to seventy five, and, as it seems to me that I am much better acquainted with land and negroes than bank stock, particularly as I am yet paying interest on some remaining debts, I believe I shall sell out altogether."

Mr. C\*\*\* who is fond of theorising, then remarked, "why it seems that we have all obtained our estates in different modes. Mr. Heartwell has inherited his, I have made mine by merchandising; friend Brooks has made his by farming, and neighbor Flint, his, by picking up that which others had not the sense to keep. There are indeed seemingly very different roads to wealth, but there is one practice common to all who travel them. They must spend less than their income, be this what it may. Whosoever will steadily adhere to this rule need not despair of one day getting rich, whilst he who does not observe it, if rich, is likely to become poor, and if poor, must remain so. I would further remark, gentlemen, that where there is one fortune made on a sudden, there are twenty made by little and little; and that of those who have wealth, where there is one man, who like Mr. Heartwell, has inherited it, there are three or four times as many who, like ourselves, have made it. Come, gentlemen, let me fill your glasses to the toast I shall give you.—"A hand to work for money, a head to take care of it, and a heart to enjoy it." We all pledged the toast of our kind entertainer, with hearty good will, and retired to our respective rooms. I, the next day, took a note of the conversation, and now send it to the Museum, in

the hope of furnishing its readers with a moral, if not with amusement.

K.

*Old Dietary for the Clergy.*—In an old "*Dietarie for the Clergy*" by archbishop Cranmer, an archbishop is allowed to have two swans or two capons in a dish, a bishop two. An archbishop six blackbirds, at once, a bishop five, a dean four, an archdeacon two. If a dean has four dishes in his first course he is not afterwards to have custards and fritters. An archbishop may have six snipes, an archdeacon two. Rabbits, larks, pheasants and partridges are allowed in these proportions. A canon residentiary is to have a swan only on a Sunday. A rector of sixteen marks, only three blackbirds in a week.

*Cyder.*—This was a very common liquor in England several centuries ago. In the year 1295, An. 23 Edw. 1, the king orders the sheriff of Southamptonshire to provide, with all speed, four hundred quarters of wheat, to be collected in parts of his bailiwick nearest the sea, and to convey the same, being well winnowed, in good ships, from Portsmouth to Winchelsea. Also to put on board the said ships, at the same time, two hundred tons of cyder. The cost to be paid immediately from the king's wardrobe. This mandate is in old French.

#### SONNET IV.

Away! away! this love lorn strain  
Of sighs and tears and beauty's chain  
My harp shall strike no more;  
But in yon wild and fiery clime,  
That weakness merg'd shall be in crime,  
And mix'd those tears with gore.  
A gallant banner fair and bright  
Greets proud my glowing fancy's sight,  
Along the air it waves:  
A thousand hearts are throbbing high,  
That silent soon and cold shall lie,  
And moulder in their graves.  
I see th' impatient charger bound  
I hear the thrilling trumpet's sound  
Announce the battle's roar;  
Ah! lo! the lightning's vivid flash,  
Oh! list the stirring thunder's crash;  
My heart is glad once more.

D.C.T.

#### THE POLICY OF ENCOURAGING MANUFACTURES.—No. 3.

We must now place the Manufacturer by the side of the Agriculturist.—JERFRES.

We have now shewn, as we think, that as to the *physical* requisites for manufactures, taken altogether, Virginia is not inferior to Great Britain—that if, on the one hand, steam power, moveable machinery, money, and *some* raw materials, may be obtained on better terms in that country; on the other hand, land, buildings, water power, labour, provisions, and *other* raw materials, may be obtained more cheaply in this state;—that, on comparing the respective advantages of each country, it appears that we ought, with equal skill, to manufacture cotton fabrics, of an average quality, at as low a price as England; those of a coarse quality, at a still lower; and woollen goods, at a smaller increase of price than it would cost the English to import them, and that our advantages over the northern states are yet greater than those we possess over Great Britain.

But as, for the purpose of confirming our views, we had cited the opinion of some of our principal manufacturers; that we could manufacture woollens as cheaply as Great Britain, if we could procure the raw material as cheap, it will naturally be asked, if the circumstances of our country, are so favourable to manufactures, how happened it that the manufacturers, at that very time, petitioned congress for further protection on woollens, when they not only had the advantage of the British manufacturer, by the existing duty, but also by the expense of importation? and that the same class even require protection on *cotton* manufactures in which they have the material cheaper than their foreign competitors? The following answers to these questions, are furnished by the manufacturers themselves in the evidence before the committee of congress. 1st. As wool is higher at present, in this country than abroad, they thought it necessary to encourage the raising of sheep at home by a further duty on imported wool, by which it would become eventually cheaper, and as this increase of duty would have the effect of raising the price of domestic woollens, it would be necessary to raise the duty on imported cloth to a correspondent extent. 2dly. That

a strong prejudice existed against cloth manufactured in this country. Col. Shepherd said he considered 'the prejudices more than twenty five per cent against the domestic article.' 3dly. That the price of manufacturing labour was higher in the first establishments, from the want of that skill and management which time and practice would gradually supply. As a proof of this progressive change, one witness, (Mr. Marland) stated that he had paid three dollars for weaving a piece of flannel for which he then paid only one dollar. Another, (Mr. Clapp) stated that he then paid ten cents a yard for weaving, but had previously paid as high as thirty cents. Another, (Mr. Schenck,) that broadcloths were made at much less expense than in 1825 'by the introduction of a variety of improved and labour saving machinery,' of which a part was 'of American invention.' 4th. and lastly. The manufacturers further urged, as a reason for an increase of duty, the *fluctuations* of the domestic market, caused by irregular and excessive importations, and producing, occasionally, great embarrassment and loss to the domestic manufacturer, whose capitals are rarely sufficient to enable them to keep her manufactures out of the market, when they are depressed below the natural price—the cost of production. These disadvantages are manifestly of a temporary character, and the manufacturers allege that they would be all either removed or greatly diminished by further protection. Supposing them to be right, there is no inconsistency between the present relative dearness of America manufactures and their future cheapness. How far the evils complained of are likely to be lessened by the protection they solicit, will be hereafter considered.

Some of the preceding considerations may be thought to apply to the continuance of the duty on cotton fabrics. On this subject, Mr. Dexter of Massachusetts, said 'I think the manufacturer of coarse cottons in this country, is now so well established, that we could make them, if the present minimum was reduced. I think, if the present minimum was repealed, that the foreign cottons, of this description would, for a time, come in, and would greatly injure, for a while, all our manufactures; but this, I think, would be done at a loss to the foreign manufacturer. Some of our manufacturers would be able,

eventually, to sustain themselves, because I think they can afford the article now about as cheap as it can be afforded from England. This reduction, would, however, create a contest between the American capital invested in these manufactures and the foreign, which would in my opinion, ruin some of our establishments, and compel all, for a time, to sustain themselves at a loss. For these reasons I do not think, the present minimum ought to be repealed.'

Having thus examined the objection founded on the supposed dearness of labour and want of capital in this country, let us consider the second objection *founded on the disadvantages of slave labour.*

It is true that the slave has not the same interest in practising the same course of steady industry, or the same economy or foresight, as those who are stimulated to provide for a family, and to better their condition of life. He is urged by the strongest impulses of his nature to be indolent and improvident, and it is the constant attention to little savings that constitutes the profit of many employments. It is equally true that the neat income of a country in which the labour is performed by slaves, is far less than when it is performed by industrious freemen. The difference in the progressive advancement of Virginia and the Carolinas from that of New York and Pennsylvania, or of Ohio from Kentucky and Tennessee are too striking to leave room for doubt on this subject.

But if the pernicious influence of slavery on national wealth has not been overrated, the precise character of the mischief is often mistaken. If a slave commonly performs less work for being slow, he sometimes performs more. Fear produces the same effect on him as more generous motives on the free man. Nor is he insensible to other motives. He may be stimulated by rewards. He is not insensible to emulation. He can feel the force of habit. Although too he is inclined to be wasteful and extravagant in his consumption, he is compelled to practise economy. But it is chiefly in its effects on the *free population* that the mischief of slavery is felt. By lessening the inducements to industry; by making manual labour degrading; by furnishing the means of expense, and in many ways cherishing a taste for it; by superinducing habits of idleness and pleasure, slavery diminishes the productive industry

of a country in a far greater degree, than by its immediate effects on the slaves themselves. In the latter case, it merely makes one class of the community earn something less, in the former, it makes another class, earn nothing. It merely *inclines* the slave to waste, but it furnishes the master with both the inclination and the means of extravagance.

But an opinion has generally prevailed, that however the labour of slaves may compare with agricultural employments, it is unfit for manufactures.—Their waste, their negligence, their stupidity, when superadded to their aversion to labour, being supposed altogether incompatible with success in the latter employment. Yet in the teeth of this opinion, good mechanics are to be found among the slaves in all the southern states. They are often ingenious and expert as blacksmiths, carpenters, shoemakers, wheelwrights, coopers, and in short in the exercise of every mechanical art in which they have been instructed. A large proportion of the slaves of this class, are also sober, industrious and respectable.—Certainly *they* would not be unfit for any of the operations of a manufactory.

But we actually have experimental proof on this subject. All the stemmeries and other manufactories of tobacco in this state, are carried on by slaves. At several of the iron-works, slaves perform the principal part of the labour. The most successful establishment, perhaps, of this kind in the state, is that of Clover-Dale in Botetourt, having about 200 slaves attached to it, although too, it was until lately under the disadvantage of being 300 miles distant from its proprietor, the late Col. Tayloe, of Washington.

In these establishments, by much the most considerable part of the labour consists in making charcoal, digging up the ore, and waggoning both that and the coal to the *furnace*; in all of which the operations are similar to those of a farm, and are subjected to the same superintendence. But in the *forge*, the operations have more resemblance to those of an ordinary manufactory, and yet the slaves employed in the duties of the forge commonly perform those duties much better than those who are employed about the furnace, and are much more easily managed. The “hammer-man,” a principal workman in a forge, is sometimes a slave, and will commonly

sell for twice or thrice as much as an ordinary labourer.

As a further proof that slaves are not unfit for the operations of a manufactory, it may be mentioned that children are more or less employed in all of them, and they cannot be supposed to have more motives to labour than slaves, more care, or foresight, or interest in the success of their labours.

Besides, the expense of superintendence must be incurred in manufacturing establishments, when they are carried on by free labourers. These must be directed in their operations, kept steady to their employments, and prevented from negligence or waste; and the persons who are required to perform these offices with freemen, would be sufficient to perform them with slaves. This circumstance suggests an advantage which the employment of slaves in manufactures has over their employment in agriculture, since in the occupations of husbandry, freemen are commonly exempt from this charge of superintendence, but in manufactures they share it in common with slaves. Slave labour is therefore more capable of entering into competition with free labour in manufacturing, than in agricultural industry; and it must not be forgotten, that the question which we are discussing, and which most materially concerns the Virginia statesman, is not whether slaves can be made to earn as much as freemen, but whether they cannot earn more in manufactures, than they now earn in agriculture.

For these reasons we must conclude that slavery presents no insuperable obstacles to our success in manufactures. K.

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#### BOW WINDOWS.

‘In which time, retiring myself into a Bay Window.’  
*JONSON’S ‘CYNTHIA’S REVELS.’*

Bow-windows were, at one time, universally called *Bay windows*. As these bays were sufficiently large, they were the common retiring places, in which confidential conversations were frequently held. Minshew has not the word *Bow-window*—‘Bay window’ he says ‘hath its name because it is builded in manner like a *baie* or rode for shippes, that is, round.’ Both bow and bay are, however, derived from the same word the Anglo-Saxon *bygan* ‘to bend or curve.’ Shakespeare speaks of ‘bay-windows transparent as barricadoes.’

## PHRENOLOGY.

We had supposed that every individual possessed some crude ideas regarding the meaning of the science, as it has been termed by its votaries, of *Phrenology* or *Craniology*; but on turning to the last edition of Todd's Johnson, in which the words have, for the first time, made their appearance, it is manifest that Mr. Todd had not the slightest idea of the acceptation of them himself. Phrenology and Craniology, which are synonymous or have become so, being defined by him "the science of cerebral pathology" or in other words the science of *diseased* brain! If Mr. Todd, whose occupation it has been "to busy himself in tracing the original and detailing the signification of words" could have such erroneous notions upon the subject, there may be others who have not had the means of becoming acquainted with the principles of the Phrenologist, or who may have been misled by that Lexicographer: we shall, therefore, in an early number of the Museum, offer a few remarks upon the foundation and superstructure of phrenology, remarking merely, at present, that as we see such difference in the moral and intellectual qualities of individuals, and as it is through the brain that the intelligent principle within us acts, Phrenologists have considered that these mental manifestations are, probably, caused by some increase or diminution in particular portions of that organ: accordingly they have, in celebrated poets, mathematicians, &c. endeavoured to discover whether any prominence was perceptible in any portion of the skull,—the skull corresponding pretty nearly to the brain—and they have too hastily perhaps concluded, that observations enough have been made to induce them to assign particular parts of the brain as the seat of particular moral or intellectual operations.

Dr. Burrows, in a recent work on insanity, has given one or two instances of the mistakes which must be constantly incurred, by believing that such external configuration of the skull must necessarily be attended with certain mental manifestations.

"When Dr. Gall" (the founder of the craniological system) "was in England, he went in company with Dr. H. to visit the studio of the eminent sculptor Chantry. Mr. C. being at the moment engaged, they amused themselves in

viewing the various efforts of his skill. Dr. Gall was requested to say, from the organs exhibited in a certain bust, what was the predominant propensity or faculty of the individual. He pronounced the original must be a great poet. His attention was directed to a second bust. He declared the latter to be that of a great mathematician. The first was the bust of Troughton, the eminent mathematician: and the second that of Sir Walter Scott! Talent, the phrenologist asserts, is relating with the ample development of the cerebral mass. Mr. Chantry exhibited to Dr. Gall drawings of numerous heads. The Cranioscopist selected one whose ample development gave a sure index of vast talent. It was a fac simile of the head of the Earl of P—mf—t.

We suspect the Dr. H. alluded to is an old and facetious friend, who is well known wherever the English language is spoken, for his works on *Insanity*. We have heard Dr. H. speak of a similar mistake in the appreciation of his own instinctive faculties, Dr. Gall having pronounced from attentive examination of his head, that he had the organs of tone and locality strongly developed; in the attributes of both of which the Doctor candidly declared himself to be miserably and strangely deficient.

These are the errors into which the phrenologist is likely to fall, and against which he has to guard, if he would avoid causing a study, which has really a philosophical basis, from meeting with that oblivion into which so many discoveries have fallen, owing to the misdirected zeal of their promulgators. Wv.

*Museum and manuscripts of Linnæus.*

It is not generally known that the entire museum, library, and manuscripts of Linnæus, are in England. They were sold by his widow to the late president of the Linnæan Society, Sir J. E. Smith, for £1000. The sale had been made without the knowledge of the court, and the king only heard of it a few hours after a ship had sailed with the treasure for England. Filled with indignation and regret, he immediately dispatched a light armed, swift-sailing vessel in pursuit, but it was too late—Sweden could no longer boast of Linnæus but by name and England possessed the works that were to endure his name to posterity. This invaluable collection has been quadrupled by Dr. Smith during a long series of years, and since his death the whole has been of-

ferred to the Linnæan Society for £4,000. It is doubtful whether that sum will be raised amongst the Society for the purchase, and if not, it is supposed, the whole may be offered to the present king of Sweden, who would, no doubt, joyfully make the purchase.—*London paper.*

**Petrarch's Works.**—The King of France has purchased the valuable collection of books, consisting of 900 volumes, connected with the life and works of Petrarch, made by M. Marsand, Professor in the University of Padua, editor of the excellent edition of the great poet's works, published a few years ago. The collection is divided into three classes. The first contains all the printed editions of Petrarch's works, published since 1470, the date of the first printed edition. The second, all the translations of his works in the Latin, French, Spanish, German, and English languages, with all commentaries and biographies. The third class consists entirely of manuscripts of Petrarch's works, on vellum and paper. The collection is to be deposited in the Louvre.

**Steam Navigation between Great Britain and India.**—A project is on foot to establish a communication by steam vessels between Great Britain and the East Indies. The enterprise has been patronised by the merchants and others of Calcutta, Madras, the Mauritius, the Cape of Good Hope, and St. Helena. Mr. Waghern, the projector, who arrived lately in London to procure the co-operation of the British Government, the East India Company, and merchants, is quite confident in the opinion that he can perform the voyage to Calcutta, and home, in six months, including stoppages both ways, to deliver letters, &c. at Madoira, St. Helena, Cape of Good Hope, Isle of France, Trincomalee, and Madras, at all which places depots of coals will be formed. The steam vessels on this service are not to be fitted up for the reception of passengers generally.—*Liverpool Paper.*

#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

##### SCHEME OF THE APPROACHING EXAMINATIONS.

Friday, July 10th.

Antient Languages—(*Latin-written translations.*) . . . . . 8 A.M.

Modern Languages—(*French.*) 11 A.M.

Saturday 11th.

Mathematics—(*Junior Class.*) 7½ "

Modern Languages—(*Italian.*) 10 "

Antient Languages—(*Greek, written translations.*) 12 "

Monday 13th.

Antient Languages—(*Antient History and Geography.*) 7 ½ "

Chemistry and Materia Medica. 10 "

(*Chemistry.*) . . . . . 10 "

Moral Philosophy—(*Political Economy.*) . . . . . 12 "

Modern Languages—(*Modern History, and Anglo Saxon*) 4 P.M.

Tuesday 14th.

Medicine . . . . . 7½ A.M.

Natural Philosophy . . . . . 10 "

Mathematics—(*Junior Class*) 12 "

Antient Languages—(*Oral Greek and Questions.*) 4 P.M.

Wednesday 15th.

Antient Languages—(*Oral Latin and Questions.*) 7½ A.M.

Modern Languages—(*Spanish*) 10 "

Anatomy and Surgery. . . . . 12 "

Thursday 16th.

Chemistry and Materia Medica, (*Materia Medica.*) . . . . . 7½ "

Moral Philosophy . . . . . 10 "

Mathematics—(*Senior Class*) 12 "

Law . . . . . 4 P.M.

Public Examination.—(*Continued from page 32.*)

#### SCHOOL OF MATHEMATICS.

A general outline is all that can be given of the Mathematical examination.

##### Junior Mathematical Class.

This class was examined in the first part of Lacroix's Algebra, the questions consisting, chiefly, of simple and quadratic equations, or problems that could be resolved by them; the expansion of series by the Binomial Theorem, and examples of permutations and combinations. This examination was wholly by written questions. In Geometry, questions both written and oral were selected from the first part, and the first and third section of the second part of Legendre's Geometry.

##### Second Mathematical Class.

The examination in Algebra, of the second class, was nearly similar to that of the first, but included the whole of Lacroix's Algebra—with the solution of cubic equations, and the theory of equations of all degrees.

In Geometry the examination was similar to that of the Junior Class.

In Geometry, written questions were given to the class, requiring the solution of the several

cases of plane and spherical triangles. It was required to prove that in spherical trigonometry, the sines of the sides are proportioned to the sines of the opposite angles, and a couple of questions were proposed in nautical astronomy.

A few questions were also given to this class, on the application of Algebra to Geometry.

#### Senior Class.

Four of the members of this class had previously been candidates for graduation, the remainder were examined in the application of Algebra to Geometry, and the theory of curves, as contained in the IV Chapter of Lacroix's *Traite Du Calcul Differentiel et Du Calcul Integral*.

In the Differential and Integral Calculus they were examined by examples taken from the questions on these subjects published by Peacock and Herschell. The class had studied the differential Calculus chiefly from the Treatise of Bouchardat, and the Integral from Bouchardat, Lacroix, and the examples before mentioned—they had proceeded to the integration of partial differential equations of three or more variables, and the questions proposed were chosen to this extent.

### SCHOOL OF CHEMISTRY AND MATERIA MEDICA.

Written examination.

#### CHEMISTRY.

20—Given the composition of water (16 ox : 2 hyd.) to compare the atomic weights of its constituents.

19—Given 2 oxides  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{metal} \quad \text{oxyg.} \\ 100 \quad 4 \\ 100 \quad 8 \end{array} \right\}$  to determine the atomic weight of the metal; that of oxygen being 8.

18—What is the law of composition for the oxygen in neutral salts?

17—How is it ascertained whether any number of combinations between A and B, be in definite proportions?

16—How are Ethers formed and what appears to be their difference of composition?

15—What is the difference of composition between pure alcohol, sulphuric ether and olefant gas?

14—How is ultimate analysis effected upon organic substances?

13—Describe the different kinds of Fermentation.

12—What change of composition does fat or oil undergo in consequence of saponification?

11—Why does Lime water produce a yellow precipitate with corrosive sublimate?

10—Why does Lime water produce a black precipitate with calomel?

9—Explain the formation of corrosive sublimate by the distillation of Bi-permuriate of Mercury.

8—Explain the formation of calomel by mixing solutions of common salt and nitrate of mercury.

7—Explain the difference of chem : action between an Acid and 1. sulphurets of the alkalis; earths &c.—2. sulphurets of the metals.

6—Explain the nomenclature  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ when there is but one degree of acidity.} \\ 2. \text{ when there are two degrees of acidity.} \\ 3. \text{ when there are intermediate degs. of acidity.} \end{array} \right.$

5—Give the nomenclature for different degrees of oxidation in the same substance.

4—Give the nomenclature for salts.  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ when neutral, so as to denote the degree of acidity.} \\ 2. \text{ when the acid is in excess.} \\ 3. \text{ when the base is in excess.} \\ 4. \text{ when the acid is in excess, and the base a per ox.} \end{array} \right.$

3—Enumerate the different simple electro-negative and electro-positive bodies.

2—Enumerate the circumstances best calculated to promote chemical action.

1—What are the instruments in use for measuring temperature and atmospheric pressure?  
[ ] N. B. The answers to be valued according to the numbers.

#### Pharmacy and Materia Medica.

14—*Opium*. How obtained? Its proximate composition—Medical effects.

13—*Cinchona Bark*. Official species, proximate composition.

12—*Aloes*. Medical use, different species, form of exhibition.

11—*Antimony*. Preparations most in use, medical character—as an Emetic.

10—*Ipecacuanha*. Composition, medical uses, dose as a diaphoretic.

9—*Jalap*. Medical use, form of exhibition.

8—*Mercury*. Preparations, medical effects.

7—*Oil of Turpentine*. Chemical composition, medical uses.

6—*Antilithics*—what? The difficulties attending their administration.

5—Enumerate the Cathartics most in use, give their doses.

4—What is meant by Tonics, Narcotics, Diuretics, Diaphoretics, Sialogogues, Errhines, Epispastics and Escharotics?

3—Give examples of the best emetics, their doses.

2—Describe the operation for preparing Extracts, Tinctures and Essences.

1—Enumerate the different forms of Pharmaceutical preparations.

What are the essential operations of Pharmacy?

What is the difference between Gum-resins and Balsams?

How do Narcotics affect Absorption?

Which are the Solvents employed in Pharmaceutical operations?

How are the impurities of Essential Oils detected?

[ ] N. B. The answers to be valued according to the numbers.

#### NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. &c.

The Editors will thank their contributors not to allow their communications to exceed six printed pages, unless the subject admits of division.

Advertisements, when of a purely literary character, will be inserted on the last page of the Journal.

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## ONOMATOPOEIA.

"Onomatopœia, when we invent, devise, sayne and make a name, intimating the sound that it signifyeth, as *Anriphibly* for an upore, and *tumultuous stirra*."

[H. PRACHAM'S *Garden of Eloquence*, 1577.]

It is probable that, in the origin of language, words were suggested to mankind, by the sounds which were heard around them—by the cries of quadrupeds, the notes of the birds of the forest, the noise emitted by the insect tribe, the audible indications from the elements, &c. These, being various, probably, first of all, suggested discriminative names, deduced from the sounds heard. It is this imitation of the noise made by objects, which constitutes the figure of speech called *Onomatopœia*—the "*vox repercutsa natura*," or "echo of nature," as Wachler in his "*Glossarium Germanicum*," (sec. vii.) has defined it.

Daily experience shows us, that this source of words is strictly physiological: children always designate a sonorous object, by an imitation of the sounds given off by it, and the greater part of sonorous bodies have had names, radically similar, given to them, in languages differing most from each other.

We say the serpents *hiss*; the bees *hum*; the thunders *roll*; the storm *blusters*; the wind *whistles*; the hogs *grunt*; the hen *cackles*; the man *snores*, &c.—all words used originally, not, perhaps, in these very shapes, but varying according to the varying idiom of the language, to imitate the sounds given off by those objects.

Such phonetic words are numerous in all known languages; and have been adopted to depict both the sound emitted, and the sonorous body itself; but, in some cases, the

word, imitating the sound, has survived its transmission from language to language, to the most modern times, whilst the name of the object, whence it proceeded, has experienced considerable mutation.

The Sanskrit, the antiquity of which cannot be contested, has a number of such words; of these we need only mention the following:—*wilala*, the cat; *kukada*, the hen, and *waihu*, the wind; in the last of which the sound of the *w* imitates that of the passage of the air; and is found in the word corresponding to *wind* in many languages. Of this figure, advantage has been taken, by Bürger, in the stanza given hereafter. The Hebrew and the Greek have numerous phonetic words, but no language is richer in this respect, than the Teutonic, in all its ramifications, including our own.

The animal kingdom affords us many examples, of which the following are a few.

*Cuckoo*. This is nearly the same in all languages, and is manifestly phonetic. Greek, *κοοκο*; Latin, *cucullus*, Irish, *Cuach*; Bask, *cucua*; Slavonic, *kukulka*, *kukuschka*, *kukaeka*, *kukawa*; Hungarian, *kukuk*; Hebrew, *cacatha*; Syriac, *coco*; Arabic, *cuchem*; Persiac, *kuku*; Koriak, *kaikuk*; Kamtschadale, *koakutschith*; Kurile, *kak-kok*; Tartar, *kauk*; \* German, *kuckucks*, or *guckguck*; (whence our word, and the Scottish *gouckoo*, *gowk* or *golk*.) French, *cocu*, &c.

*Owl*. German, *eule*; Spanish, *buho*; Polish, *puhacz*; Latin, *upupa* and *bubo*; the *u* imitating, to a certain extent, the cry of the bird.

In the greater part of languages, words, expressive of the cries of animals, are accurate imitations. The following are a few examples.

\* Adelung's *Mithridates*, vol. I.

*Bleating of sheep.* Greek, βληχασμαι; Latin, *balare*; Italian, *belare*; Spanish, *belar*; French, *beler*; German, *bloeken*; Belgic, *blaten*, Saxon, *blatan*.

*Howling of wolves.* Greek, ελαλωζω; Latin, *ululare*; German, *heulen*; Belgic, *huglen*; Spanish, *aullar*; French, *hurler*; Hence the word *owl*.

*Neighing of the horse.* Latin, *hinnire*; French, *Hennir*; German, *wiehern*; Saxon, *hnægon*.

*Clocking or clucking of hens.* Latin, *glocire*; French, *glousser*; Greek, κλωζω; German, *glucken*, Belgic, *klocken*; Saxon, *cloccan*.

*Crow like a cock.* Greek, κραζω; German, *kraehen*; Belgic, *kraegen*; Saxon, *craw*;—whence the word *crow*, the bird.

The Latin words *tinnimentum*, *tinnitus*, *tintinnabulum*, &c. from *tinio*, "to ring," are all from the radical *tin*, imitating the sound rendered, on striking a metallic vessel. The *gurgling* of water; the *clanging* of arms; the *crash* of falling ruins, are of the same character, and the game *trick-trac* formerly *tictac* seems to have been so called, from the noise made in putting down the men or dice.

This kind of imitation is, likewise, exhibited in the formation of several words, by proportioning, as it were, the elements of the word to the nature of the idea we are desirous of expressing.

The sound of a vowel, for instance, merely requires the mouth to be opened; and, however it may be arranged in the enunciation of the different vowels, the vocal tube is merely modified, to vary the impression, which the sonorous vibration has to make on the organ of hearing. The shape of the cavity is altered, but the passage of the air continues free, and the voice issues in an unrestrained manner. Hence, it has been imagined, the origin of the Danish word *Aa*, a river, a generic term, which became, afterwards, applied to three rivers in the low countries, three in Switzerland, and five in Westphalia—the vowels seeming to flow without obstacle, like rivers. Time passes away in a similar manner, and, hence, for a like reason the Greek *ai*, which signifies always, perpetually, and the German *je* which has the same meaning.

With regard to the consonants it has been imagined, that some common, imitative, principle must have existed with all

nations, so as to induce them to conform in adopting those, which produce a certain sound, to convey a similar effect to the ear.

Wallis, long ago, (*Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae*, p. 148\*) turned his attention to this matter, chiefly as regarded the English language, and he has collected a multitude of examples to shew, that a certain collocation of consonants, at the commencement of the word, generally designates the class of ideas intended to be conveyed by it. For example, he remarks,

*Str*, always carries with it the idea of great force and effort, as strong, strife, struggle, strain, &c.

*St*—The idea of strength, but less in degree—the *vis inertiae* as it were—as in stand, stay, stop, stem, step, stumble, still, stead, &c.

*Thr*.—The idea of violent motion, as thrust, throw, throng, throb, threat, &c.

*Wr*.—The idea of some obliquity or distortion as in wry, wreath, wrest, wring, wrench, wriggle, wrap, &c.

*Br*.—The idea of violent, chiefly sonorous, fracture or rupture, as break, brittle, burst or burst, &c.

*Cr*.—The idea of straining or dislocating, chiefly sonorous, as crack, cry, &c.

*Shr*.—The idea of forcible contraction, as shrink, shrivel, shrug, shrill, &c.

*Gr*.—The idea of sharp, hard or onerous, as grate, grind, grip, grieve, grunt, grave, &c.

*Sw*.—The idea of gentle agitation or lateral motion, as sway, swerve, swift, sweet, switch, &c.

*Sm*.—A similar idea, as smooth, small, smug, smile, &c.

*Cl*.—The idea of some adhesion or tenacity, as cleave, clay, clash, climb, cloy, close, cluster, &c.

*Sp*.—The idea of some dispersion, or expansion, generally quick (especially with the addition of the letter *r*.) as spread, spring, sprig, sprinkle, split, splinter, spill, &c.

*Sl*.—The idea of a gentle gliding, or slightly perceptible, motion, as slide, slip, slippery, slime, sly, slow, &c.

Lastly, *sq*, *sk*, *scr*, convey the idea of violent compression, as squeeze, squirt, squeak, screw, &c.

\* See also *Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind* by Dugald Stewart, vol. 3 p. 67.

Some other, extremely interesting observations, on the collocation of consonants, at the termination and in the body of words, are likewise contained in the grammar of Wallis, to which reference has been made. The remarks of Wallis, are, however, chiefly on his own language. The Abbé de Brosset has taken a wider range, with a similar object, and endeavoured to investigate, why certain consonants or a certain arrangement of consonants in a word should designate certain sensible properties in all languages. Why, for instance, the *st* should enter into most of the words, signifying firmness and stability, as in the Sanskrit, *stabatu*, to stand, *stanîa*, a town;—in the Greek, *στηλη*, a column; *στερεος*, solid, immovable, *στειρα*, sterile, remaining constantly without fruit; *στηριζω*, I fix firmly; in the Latin, *stare*, to stand; *stirps*, a stem; *stupere*, to be astonished; *stagnum*, stagnant water; and, he might have added, in the German, *still-stehend*, stagnant; *stadt*, a town; *stand*, condition; *sterben*, to die; *still-stand*, cessation, &c; besides the English words, commencing with *st*, already quoted from Wallis.

Words, commencing with *sc*, according to M. de Brosset, denote hollowness, as *σκαλω*, *σκατω*, to dig; *σκαφη*, a skiff or boat, in the Greek: *scutum*, a shield; *scyphus*, a large jug; *sculper*, to engrave; *scrobs*, a ditch;—in the Latin: *ecuelle*, formerly *escuelle*, a dish; *scarifier*, to scarify; *scabreux*, scabrous; *sculpture*:—and similar words might be added from our own language. *Ecrire*, formerly *escrire*, the French for “to write,” is from the Latin, *scribere*; and, antiently, a kind of style was used for tracing the letters in wax; which instrument, by a like analogy, was called by the Greeks, *σκαριφος*.

M. de Brosset accounts for these circumstances, by supposing, that the teeth being the most immovable of the organic apparatus of the voice, the firmest of the dental letters, *t*, has been mechanically employed to designate stability; as, to denote hollowness, the *k* or *c* has been adopted, which are produced in the throat—the most hollow of the vocal organs. The letter *S* he considers to serve merely as an augmentative, as the sound can, by its addition, be made more continuous.

In the same manner, the letters *fl* are used for the motion of fluids of all kinds,

as in the Greek words, *φλογ*, flame, *φλεψ*, a vein in which blood flows. *φλεγειν*, a burning river, in the infernal regions. In the Latin, *flamma*, flame, *fluo*, I flow, *flatus*, wind, *fluctus*, a wave &c. In the German, *floessen* to float, *floeten* to play on the flute, *fluss*, a river, *flug*, flight; and the French and English words of the same meaning.

Lastly, the idea of roughness and asperity is conveyed by the letter *r*, as in the words, rude, rough, acrid, rock, romp, &c. in our own language and in similar words in others.

The above remarks, suggested by those of the president De Brosset and of Wallis, must not of course be received too absolutely: in the condition in which we find languages, at the present day, it would be impossible, that they should hold good universally: but they will tend to shew, that the Physiology of the voice is most intimately connected with this point of philosophy, and, that the sounds, emitted in particular modifications of the vocal tube, may have actually led to the first employment of those sounds according to the precise idea it may have been desired to convey;—an association of gutturals, for example, to communicate a sound of hollowness—a resisting Dental that of obstacles, &c. &c. The words *mama* and *papa* are composed of a vowel and consonants, which are the easiest of enunciation and which the child, consequently, pronounces and unites earlier than any other: and hence they have become the infantile appellation for mother and father in almost all nations: and, of late years, have been used by children of larger growth also. It is hardly necessary to say, that the infant, when he first pronounces those words, attaches no such meaning to them as that which prevails.

Lastly there is a rhetorical variety of this figure, frequently considered under the head of *alliteration*, but by no means deriving its chief beauties from that source.

It happens when a repetition of the same letter concurs with the sonorous imitations, already described: as in the following line of the—Æneid 1 v. 57. of Virgil.

“*Luctantes ventos tempestates quo sonoras.*”

Where the frequent occurrence of the letter of firmness and stability *l*, communicates the idea of the striking of the winds on objects.

In the "*Andromaque*" of Racine a line of this character occurs—

"*Pour qui sont ces serpents qui sifflent sur vos têtes.*"

"For whom are those serpents that hiss o'er your heads."—

in which the sound, impressed on the ear, is similar to the hissing of serpents.

And, in the "*Poeme des Jardins*" of the Abbé de Lille, there is the following example, of which we have attempted a version.

"*Soit que sur le limon une rivière lente,*

"*Deroule en paix les plis de son onde indolente:*

"*Soit qu'a travers les rocs un torrent en courroux*

"*Se brise avec fracas."*

"If o'er deep slime a River laves,

"In peace, the folds of its sluggish waves;

"Or o'er the rocks a torrent breaks

"In wrath obstreperous."

We have here, in the original, the liquid l, in the first two lines, denoting the tranquil flow of the river, and, on the other hand, in the two last, the letter of roughness and asperity, r, resembles the rushing of the stream like a torrent.

The remarks already made will have exhibited the radical difference in the ideas, communicated by the sound of those letters, by the common consent of almost all languages.

In this kind of beauty, in the German language, no author is richer than the poet Bürger. In the following stanza, the frequent occurrence of the *w*, communicates to the mind the idea of the wafting of the wind, far more beautifully, than in the translation which has been attempted.

"*Wonne weht von Thal und Huegel,*

"*Weht von Flur und Wiesenplan*

"*Weht vom glatten Wasserspiegel,*

"*Wonne weht mit weichem Fluegel*

"*Des Piloten wange an."*

"Pleasure wafts from Vale and Mountain,

"Wafts from off each verdant place,

"Wafts from out the glassy fountain,

"Joy, on downy Pinions mounting,

"Wafts upon the Pilot's face."

The English language affords a few specimens of this beauty, but not as many as might be imagined. Of simple alliteration there are several, some which give delight, others which do violence to the suggestive principle, but there are comparatively few, where

the words are selected, which, by their sound, convey to the mind the idea to be impressed. The galloping of horses, may be assimilated by a frequent succession of shortsyllables—slow, laborious, progression by the choice of long: but in the Onomatopœia, in question, the words themselves must consist of such a collocation of one consonant or of particular consonants, as adds force to the idea communicated by the words collectively. Of this the two following examples may be cited in which the repetition of the letter *r*, in the various Phonetic words, especially, adds considerable force to the idea intended to be conveyed by the passage.

"Loud sounds the axe, redoubling strokes on strokes

"On all sides round the forest hurls her oaks

"Headlong. Deep echoing groan the thickets brown;

"Then rustling, crackling, crashing, thunder down."

Again—

"Break his bands of sleep asunder

"And rouse him like a rattling peal of thunder."

Lastly.—In the forty second stanza of the seventh canto of Spencer's "*Faerie Queene*," there is another example of this figure but not so striking as either of the two already given—

"His looks were dreadful, and his fiery eyes,

"Like two great beacons, glared bright and wyde,

"Glancing askew, as if his enemies

"He scorned in his overweening pryde;

"And stalking stately, like a crane did stryde

"At every step upon the tiptoes hie;

"And all the way he went on every syde

"He gaz'd about and stared horrible,

"As if he with his looks would all men terrifie."

Zy.

#### JEFFERSON'S MEMOIR AND CORRESPONDENCE.

(Continued from page 49.)

It is curious to see, in the following extract, how the arguments and feelings of the different portions of the Union have changed places, according to their interest. The subject is particularly interesting at this time, in Virginia, where it will form one of the principal questions in the discussions of the approaching Convention.

' On Friday, July 12, the committee appointed to draw the articles of Confederation reported them, and, on the 22nd, the House resolved themselves into a committee to take them into consideration. On the 30th and 31st. of that month, and 1st of the ensuing, those articles were debated which determined the proportion, or quota, of money which each state should furnish to the common treasury, and the manner of voting in Congress. The first of these articles was expressed in the original draught in these words. ' Art. XI. All charges of war and all other expences that shall be incurred for the common defence, or general welfare, and allowed by the United States assembled, shall be defrayed out of a common treasury, which shall be supplied by the several colonies in proportion to the number of inhabitants of every age, sex and quality, except Indians not paying taxes, in each colony, a true account of which, distinguishing the white inhabitants, shall be triennially taken and transmitted to the Assembly of the United States.'

Mr. Chase moved that the quotas should be fixed, not by the number of inhabitants of every condition, but by that of the ' white inhabitants.' He admitted that taxation should be always in proportion to property, that this was, in theory, the true rule; but that, from a variety of difficulties, it was a rule which could never be adopted in practice. The value of the property in every state, could never be estimated justly and equally. Some other measure for the wealth of the state must therefore be devised, some standard referred to, which would be more simple. He considered the number of inhabitants as a tolerably good criterion of property, and that this might always be obtained. He therefore thought it the best mode which we could adopt, with one exception only: he observed that negroes are property, and as such, cannot be distinguished from the lands or personalities held in those states where there are few slaves; that the surplus of profit which a Northern farmer is able to lay by, he invests in cattle, horses, &c., whereas a Southern farmer lays out the same surplus in slaves. There is no more reason therefore for taxing the Southern states on the farmer's head, and on his slave's head, than the Northern ones on their farmer's heads and the heads of their cattle: that the method proposed would, therefore, tax the Southern states according to their numbers and their wealth conjunctly, while the Northern would be taxed on numbers only: that negroes, in fact, should not be considered as members of the state, more than cattle, and that they have no more interest in it.

Mr. John Adams observed, that the numbers

of people were taken by this article, as an index of the wealth of the state, and not as subjects of taxation; that, as to this matter, it was of no consequence by what name you called your people, whether by that of freemen or of slaves; that in some countries the laboring poor were called freemen, in others they were called slaves; but that the difference as to the state was imaginary only. What matters it whether a landlord employing ten laborers on his farm, gives them annually as much money as will buy them the necessities of life, or gives them those necessities at short hand? The ten labourers add as much wealth annually to the state, increase its exports as much, in the one case as the other. Certainly five hundred freemen produce no more profits, no greater surplus for the payment of taxes, than five hundred slaves. Therefore the state in which are the labourers called freemen, should be taxed no more than that in which are those called slaves. Suppose, by an extraordinary operation of nature or of law, one half the laborers of a state could in the course of one night be transformed into slaves: would the state be made the poorer or the less able to pay taxes? That the condition of the laboring poor in most countries, that of the fisherman particularly of the Northern states, is as abject as that of slaves. It is the number of laborers which produces the surplus for taxation, and numbers, therefore, indiscriminately, are the fair index of wealth; that it is the use of the word ' property' here, and its application to some of the people of the state, which produces the fallacy. How does the Southern farmer procure slaves? Either by importation or by purchase from his neighbor. If he imports a slave, he adds one to the number of laborers in his country, and proportionably, to its profits and abilities to pay taxes; if he buys from his neighbor, it is only a transfer of a laborer from one farm to another, which does not change the annual produce of the state, and therefore should not change its tax: that if a Northern farmer works ten laborers on his farm, he can, it is true, invest the surplus of ten men's labor in cattle; but so may the Southern farmer, working ten slaves; that a state of one hundred thousand freemen can maintain no more cattle, than one of one hundred thousand slaves. Therefore, they have no more of that kind of property; that a slave may indeed, from the custom of speech, be more properly called the wealth of his master, than the free laborer might be called the wealth of his employer: but as to the state, both were equally its wealth, and should therefore equally add to the quota of its tax.

" Mr. Harrison proposed, as a compromise, that

two slaves should be counted as one freeman. He affirmed that slaves did not do as much work as freemen, and doubted if two effected more than one; that this was proved by the price of labor; the hire of a laborer in the Southern colonies being from 8 to £12, while in the Northern it was generally £24.

Mr. Wilson said, that if this amendment should take place, the Southern colonies would have all the benefit of slaves, whilst the Northern ones would bear the burthen: that slaves increase the profits of a state, which the Southern states mean to take to themselves; that they also increase the burthen of defence, which would of course fall so much the heavier on the Northern; that slaves occupy the places of freemen and eat their food. Dismiss your slaves, and freemen will take their places. It is our duty to lay every discouragement on the importation of slaves; but this amendment would give the *jus trium liberorum* to him who would import slaves: that other kinds of property were pretty equally distributed through all the colonies: there were as many cattle, horses and sheep, in the North as the South, and South as the North; but not so as to slaves; that experience has shown that those colonies have been always able to pay most, which have the most inhabitants, whether they be black or white: and the practice of the Southern colonies has always been to make every farmer pay poll taxes upon all his laborers, whether they be black or white. He acknowledged indeed, that freemen work the most; but they consume the most also. They do not produce a greater surplus for taxation. The slave is neither fed nor clothed so expensively as a freeman. Again, white women are exempted from labor generally, but negro women are not. In this then the Southern states have an advantage as the article now stands. It has sometimes been said that slavery is necessary, because the commodities they raise would be too dear for market if cultivated by freemen: but now it is said that the labor of the slave is the dearest.

Mr. Payne urged the original resolution of Congress, to proportion the quotas of the states to the number of souls.

Dr. Witherspoon was of opinion, that the value of lands and houses was the best estimate of the wealth of a nation, and that it was practicable to obtain such a valuation. This is the true barometer of wealth. The one now proposed is imperfect in itself, and unequal between the states. It has been objected that negroes eat the food of freemen, and therefore should be taxed; horses also eat the food of freemen;

therefore they also should be taxed. It has been said too, that in carrying slaves into the estimate of the taxes the state is to pay, we do no more than those states themselves do, who always take slaves into the estimate of the taxes the individual is to pay. But the cases are not parallel. In the Southern colonies slaves pervade the whole colony; but they do not pervade the whole continent. That, as to the original resolution of Congress, to proportion the quotas according to the souls, it was temporary only, and related to the monies heretofore emitted: whereas we are now entering into a new compact, and therefore stand on original ground.

August 1. The questions being put, the amendment proposed was rejected by the votes of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, against those of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina. Georgia was divided. V.

#### LEIPZIG FAIR.

The great Book mart of Germany is Leipzig, a considerable town situated near the rivers Pleisse, Parde, Elster and Luppe, and about 60 miles N. N. W. of Dresden. It is famed not only for literature and science, both of which are cultivated assiduously and successfully, at its celebrated University, but also for its extensive trade in general. At its great fair, which is held at Easter, every German Bookseller has his agents, and a complete interchange of publications occurs. The town, itself, has about forty thousand inhabitants, and the fair generally attracts eight or nine thousand visitors; some from distant countries: one or more of the English booksellers being generally present.

A similar reunion of the *trade* was, we believe, attempted, in this country, upwards of twenty years ago, at Philadelphia; but the scheme fell through. This is to be regretted, as in an extensive country, like our own, such a plan would have tended considerably to the promotion of literature.

The catalogue of the last Easter fair, at Leipzig, announces three thousand one hundred and sixty new works, published by three hundred and sixty-six different booksellers, besides three hundred and fifty-six works, which are in preparation for the press.

## ON SOME OF THE FASHIONS IN DRESS, IN ENGLAND, AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

"All trapped in the new-found braverie."  
*Bishop Hall's Satires B. III.*

It may be a matter of entertainment to learn, how completely the fashion, as to male and female attire, has altered since the commencement of the seventeenth century; an alteration which cannot be regarded without self gratulation, on account of the immense balance, in point of comfort, in favor of our present easy, but unbecoming costume; unbecoming, at least, if the shape of the human body be esteemed to add to the graces of any mode of dress.

The English have been proverbially inconstant in this matter, especially about the period to which allusion has been made. Thus John Halle, in his "*Courte of vertue*," published in 1565, remarks:—

"As fast as God's word one synne doth blame  
 They devyse others as yll as the same,  
 And this varietie of Englyshe folke,  
 Dothe cause all wyse people us for to mocke.

For all discrete nations under the sonne,  
 Do use at thys day as they fyrst begonne:  
 And never doo change, but styll do frequent,  
 Theyr old guyse, whatever fond folkes do invent.

But we here in England lyke fooles and apes,  
 Do by our vayne fangles deserve mocks and japes,  
 For all kynde of countreys doe us deryde,  
 In no constant costume sythe we abyde  
 For we never knowe howe in our sway,  
 We may in fyrmie fashion steadfastly stay."

The MALE COSTUME, at this period, was as follows.—Over the shirt, was worn a tight vest, to the skirts of which were appended a number of tagged strings, or, as they were then called, points: these points consisted of "strands of cotton yarn of various colours, twisted together, and tagged at both ends with bits of tin plate." Those, worn by the higher classes, were more ornamented and of silk: but, by an act of Henry VIII, no man under the rank of a gentleman, was to have his points ornamented with aiglets of gold or silver, under penalty of ten shillings and forfeiture of the aiglets. The points were designed to support the hose or large slops, also fur-

nished with points, by which they were tied or trussed to the vest. This awkward mode of supplying the place of buttons rendered assistance, at all times, desirable, and in some cases absolutely necessary. Every great man had a page, whose office it was to *truss his points*, or to tie up his breeches. In Ben Jonson's comedy of "*Every man in his humour*," Master Stephen intreats Brainworm to "help to *truss* him a little;" and allusion to the custom is frequent in all the old comedies.\* The vest was fastened by a *girdle*, furnished with a pair of loops or *hangers* in which the dagger was constantly worn. Thus, in an inventory, found among the papers of an attorney of a court of record, in London, in the year 1611:—

"Item, one *payre of girdle and hangers* of silver purple and cullored silke.

"Item, one *payre of girdle and hangers* upon white sattene."

This article of finery was adorned with fringes and tassels of needle work, and a lady would sometimes condescend to embroider a girdle and hangers for a favorite lover or a relation. Joice tells her brother, that, "since he came to the Inns o' Court, she had wrought him a "*faire pair of hangers*."—Green's "*Tu Quoque*."

They were often very costly. Thus in the old song of "*Jockie is grown a gentleman*."

"Thy belt that was made of a white leather thonge,

"Which thou and thy father wore so longe,

"Is turned to *hangers* of velvet stronge,

"With gold and pearle embroydered amonge."

If a hat and feather, a satin cloak, and a pair of boots were added to these, the costume was complete, and the gallant was equipped in the most fashionable mode during the early part of the 17th century. (*Gifford's Jonson*. vol. ii.)

There were again some detached parts of dress which require remark:—

*Woollen caps* seem to have been generally worn by the citizen and shopkeeper, in the "*Dutch Courtezian*," Mrs. Mulligrub observes, "though my husband be a citizen and his cap's made of wool, yet I have wit." Mr. Stevens, in a note on the fifth act of "*Love's Labour Lost*," quotes another passage from "*News from hell*

\* Shakspeare's "*Twelfth Night*" scene V. "*King Henry*" IV. p. 1 &c.

brought by the devils carrier," printed in 1606: "In a bowling-alley in a flat cap like a shopkeeper." And, to illustrate the same passage, Mr. Gray mentions a statute, passed in the 13th of Elizabeth, providing, that all above the age of six, (except the nobility and some others,) should, on sabbath days and holidays, wear caps of wool."—*Old English Plays*, vol. i.

All the old English poets mention the fashion of wearing some kind of ornament in the front of the hat. *Brooches* worn there, were sometimes of great value, and formed of jewels, set in gold or silver; but sometimes, of more ignoble metal as copper, lead &c: so universal was this custom that, to accommodate the poorer classes, they were formed of pasteboard and leather:

"Thou shalt wear her glove in thy worshipful hat, like to a leather brooch."

Decker's *Satiromastix*.

The *hatband* was a very distinguishing feature of the nobility and gentry: on which comparatively large sums were expended.

The *Cable Hatband* appears to have been introduced about 1599, from a speech of Fastidious in Jonson's "*Every man out of his humour*."

"I had on a gold cable hatband, then new come up"—"of massie goldsmith's work."

It is again adverted to in the same play, and by Marston, in his "*Antonio and Mellida*," published in 1602.

A *wrought shirt* was one of the fashionable extravagancies. The linen both of men and women was either so worked as to resemble the finest lace, or ornamented by the needle, with representations of prints, flowers, passages of history, &c. The puritans substituted texts of scriptures for the usual embellishments. An allusion, is made to this, in Jonson's *City Madam*:

"Sir, she's a Puritan, at her needle too; My smock sleeves have such holy embroideries, And are so learned, that I fear, in time, All my apparel will be quoted by Some pure instructor."

The *wrought shirt* and other peculiarities in costume are also pointed out, in the relation of Fastidious Brisk's encounter with Luculentio, in the fourth act of Jonson's "*Every man out of his humour*," as well as by Marston in his "*Antonio and Mellida*."

*Hose* was their appellation for breeches:

"Lorenzo, thou dost boast of base renown;

"Why, I could whip all these, were their hose down.

The *Spanish Tragedy*.

*Paned hose*, referred to by old Ben and others of the poets, were breeches, composed of small squares or pannels. About this period, the large slashed breeches of the former century began to give way to others of a closer make: an innovation, which the old people are said to have found very inconvenient, and of which they complained, as being ill adapted to the hard oak chairs and benches on which they usually sat.

*Slop breeches* or *Trunk hose*, as they were called, were much worn in the early part of Queen Elizabeth's reign, and fashion carried them to a most extravagant extent. In the Harleian library is a MS. from which it would appear, that temporary seats were erected in the House of Commons for the convenience of the wearers. Johnson refers to them in his "*Alchemist*."

"And brought munition with him, six great slops,

"Bigger than three Dutch hoys, beside round trunks."

And Marston in his "*Antonio and Mellida*."

Bulver, in his "*Pedigree of an English gallant*," speaks of a man whom the judges accused of wearing breeches, contrary to law (for a law was made against them:) he, for his excuse, "drew out of his slops the contents, as first, a pair of sheets, two tablecloths, ten napkins, four shirts, a brush, a glass and a comb, with night-caps and other things of use, saying, 'your worships may understand, that, because I have no safer a storehouse, these pockets do serve me for a room to lay up my goods in: and though it be a strait prison, yet it is big enough for them, for I have many things of value yet within it:' and so was his discharge accepted, and well laughed at."—*Old English Plays*, vol. ii.

Spenser in his "*Mother Hubbard's Tale*" observes

"His breeches were made after the new cut, Al Portuguese, loose like an emptie gut:"

And in "*Father Hubbard's Tale*," 1604, an extravagant heir is thus facetiously described—"His breeches, a wonder to see were ful as deep as the middle of winter,



or the roade way between London and Winchester; and so *large and wide* withal, that I thinke within a twelve-month, he might very well put all his lands in them," &c.

*Yellow doublets* appear also to have been fashionable. Jonson, in his "*Every man out of his humour*," has noticed them;—

"O, he looked like a sponge in that pinked *yellow doublet*;"—

And in his "*Silent woman*,"

"All the *yellow doublets* and great roses in the town will be there."

Roses were ribands, gathered into a knot, in the form of those flowers, and fastened in the instep. They were, sometimes, of an enormous size. Thus Jonson:

"Service! fore hell, my heart was at my mouth, till I had viewed his shoes well, for these roses were *big enough* to hide a cloven foot."

*Devil's an Ass.*

And Beedome in one of his little poems, quoted by Gifford:

"He's a neat foot as ever kist the ground,  
His shoes and roses cost at least *five pound*."

These roses formed an indispensable part of the dress of the fashionable world, in the days of the first James of England, and even in those of his immediate successor.

In Nashe's "*Unfortunate Traveller*," published in 1598, it is remarked:—

"He hath in the shoe as much taffetic for the tyings, as would serve for an ancient," that is 'an ensign.'

Pug too in the "*Devil is an Ass*" refers to them:

"Garters and roses *fourscore pound* a pair."

The *stockings* were generally long, often yellow, the breeches falling short of the knees, and the defect being supplied by long stockings, the tops of which were fastened under the breeches.

*Brogue* is a kind of shoe referred to by Shakespeare:

"—————" and put  
My *clouted brogues* from off my feet."

*Cymbeline.*

The word is used both in Ireland and Scotland:—

"There were also found upwards of ten thousand old *brogues*, made of leather with the hair on."

*Dalrymple's Annals.*

The tops of the *boots*, in the time of  
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"old Ben," were turned down and hung in loose folds over the leg; they were probably of a finer leather than the rest of the boot, and seem to have had their edges fringed or scalloped: the exact shape of them may be seen, in several of the whole length portraits, of James and Charles's days, particularly in those by Vandyke: the edges of the ruffle, were, in some instances, laid with gold lace. Fastidious Brisk refers to the ruffled boot in "*Every man out of his humour*:"

"One of the spurs catch'd hold of the *ruffle* of my boot, and being of *Spanish leather*, and subject to tear, overthrows me."

*Gamashes* were perhaps the gambados, spatterdashes or short gaiters. Laverduke in Marston's Comedy of "*What you will*," says,

"Open my trunk, lay my richest suit on the top, my velvet slippers, *cloth of gold gamashes*,"; and in "the Relation of the royal entertainments, given by Lord Knowles to the Queen," published in 1613, is the following passage:—

"The gardener was suted in gray, with a jerkin double jagged, all about the wings and skirts, he had a pair of great slops with a codpiece, and *buttoned gamachios*, all of the same stuff."

The leg seems to have been a favorite loop for the dress of the gallants; it is noticed by Shakespeare:—

"*Sir Tob.* I did think, by the excellent constitution of the *leg*, it was formed under the star of a galliard."

"*Sir And.* Aye, 'tis strong; and it does indifferent well in a flame-coloured stock."

*Twelfth Night.*

Bobadill, who was the very mirror of fashion, is, in Jonson's "*Every man in his humour*," furnished with *silk stockings*:

So also Master Stephen:

"*Stephen.* By my faith, and so I will, now thou tell'st me on't; how dost thou like my *leg*, Brainworm?"

*Brainworm.* A very good *leg*, master Stephen; but the woollen stocking does not commend it so well."

"*Stephen.* Foh! the stockings be good enough, now summer is coming on, for the dust: I'll have a pair of silk against winter, that I go to dwell in the town. I think *leg* would show in a silk hose."

*Bases* seem to have been some kind of quilted covering for the thighs, and appear

to have made part of the military dress of the time :

*Per.* Now by your furtherance I am clad in steel

Only, my friend, I am yet unprovided of a pair of *bases*.

*Fish.* We'll sure provide : thou shalt have my *best gown* to make thee a pair.

*Pericles.*

Mr. Gifford thinks they resembled the present Highland *Fillibeg*.

*Little legs* seem, strangely enough, to have been considered characteristic of a gentleman : the allusions to this notion are numerous, in the older poets : thus Browne,

——— " if *small legs* wan

" Ever the title of a gentleman,

" His did acquire it."

And Beaumont and Fletcher :—

" I'll never trust long chins and *little-legs* again ;  
But know them, sure, for *gentlemen* hereafter."

And Jonson :—

" No, *your legs* do sufficiently shew you are a gentleman born Sir ; for a man born upon *little legs* is always a gentleman born."—*Poetaster*.

On the *coats* were worn—stiff, upright collars, which were fastened on, and called *Picardilo* or *Piccadils*, a term which is, according to Gifford, simply a diminutive of *picca*, a spearhead, and was given to this article of foppery, from a fancied resemblance of its stiffened plaits to the bristled points of these weapons. Blount thinks, and perhaps with justice that the street "*Piccadilly*" in London, took its name from the sale of the "small stiff collars, so called," which were first set on foot in a house, near the western extremity of the present street by one Higgins, a tailor.

The fashion, followed by both the great and the lower classes, of having their ruffs and linen stiffened with a kind of *yellow starch*, was an object of satire to the wits of this age. According to Whalley this custom was first brought into vogue by Mrs. Turner, one of the persons employed by the Countess of Essex, in the poisoning of Sir Thomas Overbury, and as she was soon after executed, for her dealings in that affair, with a yellow starched ruff about her neck, the fashion became for a time disreputable. Jonson speaks of its prevalence amongst the inferior orders :—

——— " *Carmen*

" Are got into the *yellow starch*."

*The Devil is an Ass.*

In "*Every man in his humour*," Puntarvolo desires the boy, not to stand too near to him, lest his breath should *thaw his ruff*.

Old Stubbes, the Puritan, who has lashed the follies of his time with ludicrous severity, in his "*Anatomie of Abuses*," 1585, breaks out into tenfold rage when he treats of the numerous abominations of the *ruff* and the *starch*.

" But wot you what ? the devil, as he, in the fullness of his malice, first invented these great ruffles, so hath he now found out also two great pillars to beare up and maintaine this his kingdome of great ruffles (for the devil is kyng and prince over all the children of pride.) The one arche or pillar, whereby his kyngdome of great ruffles is underpropped, is a certain kynde of liquid matter, which they call starch, wherein the devil hath willed them to wash and drie their ruffles well ; which beyng drie, will then stand stiff and inflexible about their neckes. The other pillar is a certain device made of wiers, crested for the purpose, whipped over either with gold thread, silver or silke : and this he calleth a supportasse or underproper."

The *Beard*, too at this period seems to have been subjected to similar treatment : the precise and formal gallants had theirs *stiffened with starch*—

" Who ? this in the *starched beard*?"

At times it seems to have been cut like a *quicksset* hedge.

" Hang him, rascal, I cannot abide him for his treachery, with his wild *quicksset beard* there."

" *Every man out of his humour*."

Whalley gives an extract, from the *Whip of Pride*, by Taylor, the water poet, where the several figures and this amongst them, in which they dressed the beard are mentioned :—

" And some, to set their love's desire on edge

" Are cut and pruned, like to a *quicksset hedge*."

And again :—

" Some seem as they were starched stiff and fine,

" Like to the bristles of an angry swine."

The *quicksset beard* would appear to have been the simplest of all the modes in vogue. Mrs. Quicksly talks of a beard

rounded "like a glever's paring knife; and Taylor mentions two others "with the *hammer cut* or the Roman T."

At this period the Puritans, among their singularities, affected to cut their hair short and close to their heads: whence they had afterwards the appellation of *Round Heads*. The practice is more than once alluded to by old Ben:—

"Religion in their garments, and their hair  
Cut shorter than their eyebrows."

and again in his epigram on a *reformed gamester*:—

"Lord, how is gamester chang'd! his hair close  
cut

"His neck fenced round with ruff, his eyes half  
shut."

The *stewards* of noblemen and gentlemen wore chains of gold, as badges of office: this is referred to by Shakspeare and by most of the writers of the time: they wore also a velvet jacket.

Thus Chapman:

"What qualities have you, Sir, (beside your  
chain

And velvet jacket?)"

*Bussy d'Ambois*, act 1.

And Middleton:—

"That's my grandsire's chief gentleman  
i'the chain of gold. That he should live  
to be a pander, and yet look upon his chain  
and his velvet jacket."

"A mad world, my masters."

*Blue coats* formed the usual livery of servants.

"Swounds, it has begun a serving man's speech, ever since I belonged to the *blue order*."

Jonson's "*The case is altered*."

A badge of silver was also worn on the left sleeve. Fletcher, however, seems to allude to the blue dress as obsolete, in "*The woman Hater*," written about the middle of the 17th century, where Lazzarillo, describing how he would live, if fortune would give him means, observes "my first course should be brought in *after the ancient manner*, by a score of old bleer-eyed serving men in *long blue coats*." And in the last act of that play the host enters "in a livery cloak." In Middleton's comedy of "*A Trick to catch the old one*," the same change of fashion is referred to.

The FEMALE FASHIONS of the age are equally singular to us:—

The ladies used *dyes*, to change the co-

lour of their hair, and often, as at present, wore false locks of a different colour from their own. In Queen Elizabeth's reign, as her majesty's hair was sandy, every female who was not so gifted, wore false hair of that colour, in compliment to her, and the beauties of Spenser and the other poets of the time, have hair of that colour; the young, unmarried, ladies had their locks curiously knotted and elevated above the forehead: and, in cold weather, they wore a cap of hair or wig:—

There seems, about the commencement of the seventeenth century, to have been a singular prejudice against *red hair*.

Judas is represented as red haired, by their painters, as well as by the poets. Innumerable instances may be adduced of this prejudice: and many have been given by Stevens in a note on the first act of the "*Merry Wives of Windsor*," where M. Tollet observes, "this conceit is thought to have arisen in England from our ancient grudge to the *red haired Danes*." Heccate, in Middleton's "*Witch*," among other ingredients, necessary to be used in her charm, to procure the death of Almachildes, directs Firestone to fetch:—

"Three ounces of the *red haired girl*."  
George Chapman, too, in his tragedy of "*Bussy D'Ambois*" published in 1607, has the following line:

"Worse than the poison of a *red-haired man*."

The married ladies *dressed their hair* in various ways, sometimes with lappets or ribands floating in the air like streamers. Feathers, jewels and gold and silver ornaments were also common. The *French hood* was a favorite *coiffeure*: it consisted simply of gauze or muslin and reached from the back of the head down over the forehead, leaving the hair exposed on each side: this was probably the Mary Stuart's or Mary Queen of Scots' cap, of our day: *Cauls or nets of gold thread* were also tastefully thrown over the hair: and the head was often adorned with peas in their shells; the shells open and the peas formed of fine pearls.

The *citizen's wives* wore a superb *velvet cap*, with a peak or *tiara*, three inches high, the peak was white, the cap, generally, colored and three cornered.

In the "*Poetaster*," Jonson has referred to the variety of *Tires* or head dresses then in vogue.

"*Crispinus*. I'll tell thee some, if I can but recover them, I composed even now of a dressing I saw a jeweller's wife wear, who indeed was a jewel herself: I prefer that kind of *tire* now: what's thy opinion, Horace?

*Hor.* With your silver bodkin, it does well, sir.

*Crisp.* I cannot tell; but it stirs me more than all your court-curles, or your spangles, or your tricks: I affect not these high gable ends; these Tuscan tops, nor your coronets, nor your arches, nor your pyramids: give me a fine sweet, little delicate dressing with a bodkin, as you say: and a mushroom for all your other ornaments."

In the Original Roll, dated 23d July, 39 Elizabeth, relating to dress; signed by the Queen and preserved amongst the Duke of Bridgewater's curious manuscripts, it is ordered, that no woman "shall weare in her apparell cawles, attires or other garnishinge for the hed trymed with perle, vnder the degree of a baron's eldest sonnes wife, except barons' daughters &c." and from the following lines of Spenser, it would appear that the trimming with perle was in his time uncommon.

"*Strange was her tire*: from her head a crowne

She wore, much like unto a Danish hood:  
Poudred with pearle and stone; and all her  
gowne [low adowne."

Enwoven was with gold, that raught full  
*Faerie Queene* b. iv.

*Masks* were in general use, when a lady went abroad, or to the theatre: the chin was also concealed with what was called a *muffler*. They wore very *stiff ruffs* and of most enormous dimensions. These ruffs reached, behind, to the very top of the head, and the lawn or cambric of which they were fabricated was of the most extraordinary fineness.

The *sleeve hands* of the chemise seem to have been occasionally garnished with ribbons of gold: the bosom part was called the *square* :—

"You would think a smock were a she angel: he so chants to the *sleeve hand* and the work about the *square* on't.

*Shakspeare's Winter's Tale.*

The *waist* was frightfully and beyond all proportion long, and in the forepart of the *stomacher* was a pocket for money,

letters and needlework. The *gowns* were made of the richest materials, with velvet caps embroidered with bugles and the sleeves very curiously cut. A round hoop, called a *farthingale* was worn with the petticoat and the gowns were stuffed or padded about the shoulders.

A mantle, called a *kirtle*, was thrown over the dress as a finish: some of these mantles had hoods, others were without: the mantle, itself, being of velvet or silk, richly bordered with lace.

The *heels of the shoes* were very high: and the *fans* were made of Ostrich feathers, with silver or ivory handles, studded with diamonds and other jewels. In the year 1589, on new year's day, Sir Francis Drake presented queen Elizabeth with a fan made of white and red feathers, with a gold handle, enamelled with a half moon of mother of pearl, and, within this moon, another garnished with points of diamonds and a few seed pearls on one side, having her majesty's portrait within it and, on the other side, a device with a crown over it.

*Pantables* or *Pantofles* were slippers much worn by the ladies in the morning and they were, not unfrequently, richly ornamented—Thus, in "*The Guardian*."

"With pearl embroidered *pantofles* upon your feet."

They were sometimes, as well as the shoes, raised by very thick soles and high heels:

Thus John Lyly in his "*Endymion*," published in 1591:—

"Because your *pantables* be higher with cork, &c.

The *bracelets, necklaces and gloves* were perfumed.

*Carcanets* were necklaces and sometimes bracelets for the arms: they seem really to have been chains set with precious stones. In the "*second part of Antonio and Melida*" we learn that they were worn entwined with the hair.

"Curled hairs, hung full of sparkling *carcanets*,  
"Are not the true adornment of a wife."

Minsheu, in his Dictionary, published in 1617, has "*Carcanet*, or tablet—a chain of gold."

Warner, the contemporary of Spenser, notices minutely the female fashions of the time, which he terms *new fangles*: formerly, he says, "they wore shoes of ease; now, of an inch broad, corked hye;" for—

merly, black karsie stockings : now, silk of youthful'st dye :” formerly, “garters of lyses” but now of silke, some edged deepe with gold” &c.

*Pockets* do not seem to have been any more in favour with the higher classes than at present ; for, to the girdle, hung a small looking glass and a handkerchief, richly wrought with gold and silver.

Lastly, clothes, at this period, were not kept in drawers or given away when no longer fashionable, but were hung up on wooden pegs, in a room appropriated to the purpose and suffered to hang there till age and moths had destroyed what pride would not permit to be worn by servants or poor relations. When queen Elizabeth died, she is said to have left behind her, three thousand different dresses.

WY.

#### THE POLICY OF ENCOURAGING MANUFACTURES.—No. 4.

We must now place the Manufacturer by the side of the Agriculturist.—JEFFERSON.

If we have been right in our preceding remarks, Virginia is no more incapable of engaging in manufactures to advantage, from her employing slave labour, than from the high price of that labour, or the high profits of capital. It is not meant to be denied that slave labour has its disadvantages, which must, in fairness be added to its money price, to ascertain its intrinsic cost. But when we see so little difference between the wages of free labourers and slaves, in many species of industry, as when they are employed in harvest work, or as mechanics, or watermen, we must think that most of the difference is rather probable than necessary—rather incidental than general, and that it may be made to yield to a course of judicious management, and superintendence, which are, as we have seen, more practicable in a manufactory than on a farm. But, however, we may estimate the inferiority of slave labour, whether at ten or fifteen per cent, or yet more, the difference must be added to the computed price of that labour in our previous comparative estimates ; and as labour constitutes but one of the three elements of price, and not always the largest, such difference would not materially vary the results that have been already stated.

But if the objections to slave labour had been unanswerable, they would not have established our incapacity to manufacture, since there would be no difficulty in procuring free labourers in this state, for any number of manufactories, that might be established, at a price little beyond that estimated for slaves. If, then, we can admit the strange proposition, that our slaves, who constitute so large a part of our mechanics, are incapable of the more simple operations of the manufactory, we must also admit that they may be retained in their present agricultural employments, and that a part of our free labourers may be transferred to manufactories from their less profitable farming occupations, or from downright idleness. Let it be remembered that the chief employments of our people must long continue to be agricultural, and that the diversion of a small proportion of our labour, in the way we recommend, will be sufficient to supply us with coarse manufactures, and to prevent the present mischievous redundancy of our staple products. We will now consider the

5d. Objection. *That manufactories have injurious moral and political effects.*

The mischiefs that have been imputed to manufacturing establishments, are, 1st. That those who work in them are exposed to greater privation and discomfort than those who are employed in agriculture. 2d. That they contribute both to the moral and the intellectual, degradation of the labourers or *operatives*. 3d. That they are not congenial with republican Institutions. To each of these we will give a brief consideration.

1. *The want of comfort of the manufacturers.*—That those, who are employed in the manufactories of Europe, have been often compelled to undergo excessive labour, and endure great privation, cannot be denied. But this is far less the case now than formerly, and the change is to be attributed partly to the extended use of machinery, which at once lessens the labours of the body, and allows more time for mental improvement, and partly to the higher station this class of persons now hold in the public estimation.

But we have, in the United States, an effectual security against these evils, in the facility with which any man may betake himself to the occupation of husbandry, and thereby obtain the comforts of life. So

long as we possess fertile, untilled land, the average profits and comforts of agriculture will furnish a standard, below which those of no other employment can fall: and our manufacturers will not long submit to lower wages, or to less comfort than they can obtain by cultivating the earth. The philanthropists, then, whose sympathies have been alarmed for the misery to which the supposed manufacturers were inevitably doomed, may dismiss their fears, at least as to those of America, and may assure themselves that this class of persons are destined to experience only those vicissitudes of good and ill fortune, and that degree of suffering, which are incidental to the other classes, and are the lot of our common nature.

It is true that the security, here spoken of, does not extend to slaves. But as to them, public opinion,—the mild spirit of christianity, whose benign influence is in nothing more felt, than in the treatment of the slave—and, not least, perhaps, the permanent interests of the master—all of which have so concurred in lightening the bonds of slavery in the United States,—afford the most ample guarantee that this class of persons will be no more oppressed or abused in manufactures than in agriculture.

2. *That manufactures degrade the labourer.*—This opinion was first advanced by Adam Smith, who speaks of the manufacturer in language that must have been exaggerated, even in his day. He says, “the man whose whole life is spent in performing a few simple operations, of which the effects too, are perhaps, always the same, or very nearly the same, has no occasion to exert his understanding, or to exercise his invention in finding out expedients for removing difficulties which never occur. He naturally loses, therefore, the habits of such exertion, and generally becomes as stupid and ignorant, as it is possible for a human creature to become.”

Mr. Malthus and Mr. McCulloch, who differ on so many of the disputed points in political economy, concur in denying the justness of this representation. The latter writer says, “instead of its being true that the workmen, employed in manufacturing establishments, are less intelligent and acute than those employed in agriculture, the fact is distinctly and completely the reverse. The weavers and other mechanics of Glasgow, Manchester and Birmingham,

possess infinitely more general and extended information, than is possessed by the agricultural labourers of any county in the empire.” And again:—“We do not believe that they ever were less intelligent than the agriculturists; but whatever may have been the case formerly, no one will now venture to affirm that they are inferior to them in intellectual acquirements, or that they are mere machines without sentiment or reason.” We will add to this, the testimony of a judicious friend, who was a native of Lancashire, one of the principal manufacturing counties in England, and who sometime since assured us that he considered the manufacturing part of the population of that county, superior to the agricultural, both in intelligence and morals.

Of the general effects of manufactures, Mr. Malthus thus speaks: “Most of the effects of manufactures and commerce on the general state of society are in the highest degree beneficial. They infuse fresh life and activity into all classes of the state, afford opportunity for the inferior orders to rise by personal merit and exertion, and stimulate the higher orders to depend for distinction upon other grounds than mere rank and riches. They excite invention; encourage science and the useful arts; spread intelligence and spirit; inspire a taste for conveniences and comforts among the laboring classes; and, above all, give a new and happier structure to society, by increasing the proportion of the middle classes.”—The truth is, that the same circumstances which improved the comfort of the manufacturing classes in Great Britain, have also improved their moral and intellectual character.

Of the effects which manufacturing establishments have had in our country, let us take the testimony of the experienced, as given to the committee already referred to. Mr. Young of Delaware, said:—“our village consists of a population of about 300 souls, more or less; and, since the establishment of our manufactory, the moral and pecuniary condition of its inhabitants have materially improved.”

Mr. Dupont of the same state, said,—“from an experience of twenty-six years in different branches of manufacturing, I can say that I believe the moral and pecuniary condition of the labourers I have employed, have, as a general rule, been mate-

rially improved; and this, I believe, will continue to be the case, so long as this country offers to labour a safe employment, in the purchase of unimproved land, at a low price, and so long as the Constitution of the Government remains free as it now is. All the children employed in, and dependent on, our factories, are regularly taught in Sunday schools, until they acquire the rudiments of a tolerable education.

Mr. Clapp, of Boston, in answer to the inquiry into the "comparative state of morals," between the agricultural and manufacturing population of New-England, answered, "I think the opportunities for moral and religious instruction, are decidedly in favour of the manufacturing community; it being one of the first objects of the proprietors of the large establishments, to provide schools, and houses for religious worship."

Mr. Pierce of New-Hampshire, said "from all my observations, I believe the morals of those employed in manufacturing to be as good as those of any other class in society, and there is perhaps, a less amount of crime and immorality, than among the same number of persons, engaged in the other common avocations of life."

To this mass of unimpeachable evidence further addition would be as useless as opposition would be vain.

3. *That manufactures are not suited to our Republican Institutions.*—This objection furnishes a ready and potent argument in discussing all questions of public policy among us. Those who use it, knowing the ardent attachment of our citizens to civil liberty, and with what jealous apprehension they view every thing that may threaten it with the smallest danger, constantly appeal to these feelings, in support of any side they chance to espouse. They have relied upon the strength of the affection, for their success in blinding the judgment. In this way, commerce, the fine arts, large cities, luxury, a navy, a funded debt, a regular, military force, and incorporated companies, have all been successively assailed. But indeed, what measure of policy can be named, however remedial, or palliative, or even positively beneficent its character, in which some of these vigilant guardians of the public welfare have not discovered danger to republican institutions? If they can then, "snuff the approach

of tyranny in every breeze," whether it is "tainted" or not, it is not at all surprising that manufactures share in the common denunciations. But, as this string, however rudely touched, never fails to produce correspondent vibrations in many an honest bosom, the objection must not be past by. It shall be met and answered.

So far as this objection is founded on the supposed ignorance and immorality of the manufacturing class, it has been already amply refuted. But it further supposes that manufactures favour an unequal distribution of wealth, that they tend to create with a class of opulent capitalists, another of needy dependents, who, bestowing their votes according to the will of their employers, naturally augment the natural influence of wealth, and may thus establish a monied aristocracy. It is worthy of remark, that while the right of general suffrage has been objected to, as giving too much weight to a dependent class, and as thereby endangering the rights of property, the preceding objection supposes that the same class will be instrumental in giving an undue influence to property. But, in truth, these suppositions, though opposite in character, are not irreconcilable. That extension of the elective franchise to the laboring classes, which has taken place, or will take place, every where in our country, tends, in some ways, to lessen the influence of wealth, and in others, to increase it: and although one tendency may not exactly balance the other, the difference seems not likely to be sufficiently uniform or great, to furnish grounds of serious apprehension.

Besides, manufactures do not create an indigent class; they, on the contrary, by furnishing it with employment, lessen its indigence and dependence; and whatever may be the dependence of the manufacturing labourer on the capitalist, it does not seem to be essentially greater than that of tenants on their landlord, of sailors on the ship-owner, or of common journeymen on the master mechanic, all of which relations seem to be inseparable from the condition of a civilized and commercial community; and whatever may be their influence on the laboring classes, such influence must be diminished by that which provides for them, as manufactures do, a new and extensive field of employment.

But the answer to all the objections to

manufactures is, that when by the progress of population, our numbers shall become greater than are necessary to provide food for the community, a part of the excess must find employment and support in manufactures, or starve. There can be no alternative; and whatever may be the evils attendant on manufactories, they are irremediable. By establishing them, then, before the redundancy of numbers makes them necessary, and when the standard of human comfort is high as it is with us at present, the same standard, or something near it, may by the force of habit be retained, in a dense population, and the prudential checks, be thus called sooner into operation, and, acquiring new force, may prevent redundancy, and those dire evils, of famine and disease, which are its ordinary correctives. This standard of what is necessary to comfortable existence, is very various, and it may be greatly affected both by political and moral causes. The difference between this standard in England and Ireland, is the main cause of the denser population of Ireland.

Upon the whole, then, we believe that a manufacturing community may be as moral and intelligent as any other, that the contrary hypothesis is one of those common instances of false reasoning, in which particular facts are converted into general rules—that it has obtained currency because it is not without plausibility, and because it furnishes a ready theme for declamation, of the same rank as the general depravity of mankind—the vices of civilized society—the innocence of a state of nature—the degeneracy of modern times, with many others, on which men can talk and write very fluently and *eloquently*, with as little expense of thought to themselves as of profit to others.

The fourth and last class of objections will be considered in our next number.

K.

#### ANTIEN T ENGLISH SONG.

The following composition, of the Norman Saxon school, and as old probably as the reign of the 1st or 2nd Edward (the thirteenth century,) is the most ancient English Song that appears in the manuscripts, (Mss. Harl. 978 and Warton's

*Hist. of English Poetry*, vol. 1) with the musical notes annexed.

Sumer is i-cumen in,

Lhude sing cuccu;

Growth sed, and bloweth med,

Sing cuccu, cuccu.

Awe bleteth after lomb,

Lhouth after calve cu;

Bulluc sterteth, bucke verteth;\*†

Murie sing, cuccu,

Cuccu, cuccu;

Wel singes thee cuccu;

No swik! thou nauer nu;

Sing cuccu nu,

Sing cuccu.

\* Goes to harbour among the fern.

† Cease.

#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

The Board of Visitors of the University are now in session. Mr. Madison, the Rector, has been prevented from attending by his infirm state of health, for although he has recovered from his recent attack of indisposition he has not yet regained his strength. The Visitors present are Messrs. Monroe, Cabell, Johnson and Randolph.

*Public Day.*—On Saturday next, Orations &c. will be delivered in the Library Room of the Rotunda and other business transacted—when the public are invited to attend.

*University of Pennsylvania.*—The Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania, have elected J. C. Biddle, Esq. Secretary and Treasurer to that Institution.

#### UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

The next session of this University will open on the 10th of September next. Expenses, about two hundred and three dollars per annum.

A. S. BROCKENBROUGH, PROCTOR.

#### NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. &c.

Communications have been received from K, V, (on the Constitution of Virginia) N, M, B, ZY, and XY.

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The articles in these numbers signed  
"R. D." in manuscript are probably by  
Robert ~~Langhison~~ <sup>Langhison</sup>, M.D., Professor of  
Medicine in the University of Virginia  
from 1824 - 1833.

E. A.



creation : of the division of the heavens and the earth : the *yin* and *yang* : the separation of the darkness from the light &c. that all things were produced from an egg, first formed in water : that there were four other human beings formed, one at each of the four points of the compass. Having said this, the being called *Kin-sih-jin* ("man of the golden city,") disappeared, and the four persons, referred to, flew to the spot, each from a different quarter. It is further said, that these five persons, by a chemical process, obtained from an immense crucible, a male being and also a female. These, obtaining celestial influence from the sun and moon, produced other human beings, who again united and gradually filled the earth with people. (*Asiatic Journal*, vol. 22, p. 41.)

The Otaheitans and other Polynesians, to this day, boast of their divine origin, as well as the Kamtschadales and African negroes. The two last relate the most childish and extravagant actions of their gods. The Kamtschadales give the name *Kutka* to the creator of Kamtschatka and the primitive father of their race. They do not profess to know certainly whence this *Kutka* was derived or whether he was originally God or man : but they affirm for certain, that he formerly lived, fed, and employed himself as one of their progenitors : that he was frequently ill treated by his wife, his children and relations and even by the most contemptible animals : in short he was duped and derided as a base and abject wretch ; and this ill treatment and mockery, extravagant beyond conception, form the chief contents of their comic tales. They impute to the stupidity of *Kutka* that their country was not more beautiful and fertile, that it is deformed by so many lofty mountains and inaccessible rocks ; and that they are even subject to violent tempests.

The traditions of the African Negroes, regarding their *Nanni*, are equally extravagant. A large black spider, according to them, was the original creator of man : or rather it furnished the substance from which a Fetish formed mankind. When, at length, she had spun herself out and all the men she had produced ungratefully left her, she used the little matter that still remained for the formation of one man, who was smaller than all the rest. Him she herself brought up and gave him her

own name *Nanni*. This *Nanni* subject of all their comic stories. Reaumur has remarked, is that the negroes as *Kutka* is the schatdales. His mother how he could live in the work, by dexterously imp and the gods. She taught the flesh of poultry and to afterwards to stuff them again, or air them so well, in appearance, that the Fetish did not suspect the cheat. *Nanni*, in executing one of his mischievous tricks, lost both his arms : but this did not prevent him from chopping wood and from doing other mechanical operations for which hands and arms are required. These contradictions, however, do not strike the Negro, and he remains firm in the belief of the story he narrates, notwithstanding its absurdity.

Numerous as are the nations who derive their race from deities, the number of those, who believe themselves sprung either from animals or inorganic matter, is far greater.

The Kalmucs, according to Pallas and others, assert, that there was originally a monstrous space or chaos, of the origin of which they knew nothing, but whose width and depth they estimate at six millions, one hundred and seventeen thousand of their miles. In this expanse, clouds collected, which poured down such a constant rain that an immense ocean was formed. On this a scum rose by degrees, on which all living beings and amongst them, man, began to crawl : and from the midst of it the *Burchans* or gods were produced.

The belief of the inhabitants of the Moluccas and other isles in the East Indian ocean, is nearly identical with that of the Kalmucs. Almost all these consider themselves to have been derived from inorganic substances, whilst all the American tribes, on the other hand, accord in the idea, that beasts were their creators or first progenitors. The Molucca islanders gave an account of three eggs, which were found on a rock, and from which three mighty kings were hatched. To this day they pay their adoration to the rock, where these wonderful eggs were found, as well as to the eggs themselves, and to the kings that issued from them. The Philippine islanders believe, that the first man and woman proceeded from a bamboo stalk on the island of Sumatra. And when the inhabitants of

the Philippine isles style the crocodile their grandfather, it is probably in the same sense in which certain nations of Sumatra consider the tiger their progenitor: because, in their opinion, the spirits of their grandfathers had passed by metempsychosis into those animals.

The Ladrone islanders, again, affirm, that the first man arose from a clod of earth, on the island of Juam; that he was afterwards changed into a stone, and that from this stone all mankind originated.

The Indians of our own country, on the other hand, have derived themselves either from the great haze, which they imagine to have been a giant of prodigious bulk, or from bears and other animals. "The majority of the Algonquin nations," says Charlevoix, "believe, that, when the great haze with his whole retinue, consisting of four-footed animals, was drawn out of the water, he formed the earth of a grain of sand, which he brought up from the bottom of the sea, and that he created mankind from the bodies of dead animals. The Hurons and the Iroquois are more bold in their speculations. They make six men appear on the earth simultaneously: how they came there they do not profess to comprehend. One of these, they say mounted to heaven to look out for a wife; there he found one, who became pregnant by him, but when the sovereign of heaven saw this, he cast them down from their celestial abode. The lady was received on the back of a tortoise and delivered of two children, one of whom slew the other.

The mythology of these savages is excessively ridiculous and involved; and their traditions, concerning the creation of mankind, accord perfectly with those found amongst them regarding the destruction of the human race by a great flood and the re-peopling of the earth. The whole of the human race, say they, having been almost extirpated by a general deluge, a certain Messu, who had saved himself, from the waters, sent out a raven to fetch him a piece of earth from the bottom of the sea. But as the bird did not execute his commission properly, Messu substituted a musk-rat which was either more fortunate or more dexterous. Messu, from the portion of earth which the rat had brought him, restored the whole earth to its primitive condition. He discharged arrows against the dried branches of the trees, which the wa-

ters had left, and infused vitality into them. Many other miracles equally surprising were wrought by him, and, ultimately, out of gratitude for the services which the musk-rat had rendered him, he married an animal of that species, by which he had children who peopled the world afresh.

The Greenlanders, according to Crantz, give their first man the name of *Kallak*: this man arose from the earth, and, shortly afterwards, the first woman sprang out of his thumb: from this pair, in the sequel all mankind proceeded.

There is, also, amongst the Greenlanders a tradition, that the earth of old, was tossed about like a ship, and that the greater part of mankind were drowned, but that some were transformed into spirits of fire. The only man that remained, they affirm, smote the ground with a rod, whereupon a woman started up, by whom he re-peopled the earth. We can hardly imagine how men who could adopt such follies, could draw the conclusion, from the fragments of the bones and shells of fishes which are found on the high mountains in Greenland, that the sea must formerly have covered the whole surface of the earth. Yet such has been their correct inference.

The Californian aborigines appear to have been lower in the scale of humanity than any other of the American tribes: it is consequently to be lamented that the Jesuit Begent has touched so slightly on their notions concerning the origin of their race. Some, according to that missionary, believed that they were originally descended from a bird: others from a stone in the vicinity of the Father's house.

Gumilla, a brother of the same order, has been more circumstantial in his account of the traditionary belief of the savages of the Oroonoko, concerning their origin. If the Carabes, says Gumilla, be asked regarding their origin, they proudly reply, that they are the only nation on the earth and that all other people are their slaves. Their neighbours, the Salivas, however, related to the missionary the following tradition on the origin of the Carabes. At a time, when a formidable serpent had devoured all the nations on the Oroonoko, the God of heaven sent his son upon the earth to slay this monster: who succeeded in stretching him dead to the great joy of all the tribes along the Oroonoko. This joy was, however, of but

short duration. The snake began to grow putrid. Large worms were formed in its interior and from each worm arose a male and female Carabe. As the serpent had been the enemy and destroyer of all nations, so were the Carabes who arose from its remains.

The Onhaquas, on the other hand, regarded the Carabes as the descendants of tigers.

Another nation, the Othomacas, related to Father Gumilla, that a heap of stones, which lay upon the summit of a rock was their primitive father, and that another large fragment of rock, at the distance of two miles from the first heap was their original mother. They go so far, indeed, as to believe that each of the stones of which the promontory is composed was originally one of their ancestors. For this reason they place the skulls of their dead in the clefts of the rock, in the lap, as it were, of their common mother and amidst the remains of their remotest progenitors. Something like this is in the creed of the Mapoyas. Amongst the Salivas, one tribe held themselves to be sons of the earth, and affirmed that the earth antiently bare men and women as it does thorns and thistles. Other tribes pretend, that certain trees antiently bore the human race of both sexes as they now produce other fruit. Others, again, hold themselves to be descendants of the sun and when the good Father Gumilla, asked them why the sun was no longer delivered of people, and how their first parents could have descended from the sun without having been dashed to pieces, they coolly replied, "that it was impossible to say how matters were managed formerly."

Lastly, the Achaguas imagine, that they were originally descended from the trunks of trees or from certain kings, but without ever bestowing a thought on the important question, "Whence these trunks or kings themselves originated?"

Such are the views of uncivilized nations regarding this difficult topic. And if we are astounded at the strange opinions entertained by them, we must ourselves recollect, that all our existing knowledge could, of itself, lead us to no philosophical deduction on the subject, and that the great superiority, in this respect, which we possess over the savage and uncultivated is the information comprised in the sacred volumes.

#### SONNET. TO —.

Art thou the phantom of a brain o'erwrought,  
The fond creation of a heart and mind,  
Which, finding not the being whom they  
sought,  
Were fain to love a being they could find?  
And loving once can never be untaught  
The errors which have made and keep them  
blind:  
Exists thy excellence but in my thought,  
And art thou as the rest of womankind?  
No! No! I was not blind: I saw too clear  
Thy worth, thy beauty and thy genius high,  
Thy grace divine than beauty's self mere fair,  
And something too of softness in thine eye,  
Which spake of love, and made me madly dare:  
Prometheus-like, I pay the penalty.

D. C. T.

\* Et la grace plus belle que la beaute meme.

#### SUPERSTITIONS CONNECTED WITH THE MOON.

" ————— "T is a history

" Handed from ages down."

ROUTLEY.

Of the various superstitions to which the human mind is so prone, there is no one, which is more prevalent, than that of the belief of lunar influence on the animal body, on atmospheric phenomena and on agriculture.

Not many years ago it would have been considered culpably sceptical to disbelieve in the effect imagined to be produced by the full moon on maniacs or, as they have been termed from this very belief in lunar influence, lunatics; yet it has been most unequivocally proved by careful and accurate observation in the large insane establishments of La Salpetriere, in Paris, and of Bedlam in London, that, if the light of the full moon be excluded, the patients are no more liable to exacerbations in their disorder at these, than at other, periods.

But the belief in lunar influence has not been restricted to the case of maniacs; even the simple operation of cutting corns could not be ventured upon without attending to her condition.

Butler, in his Hudibras, has touched upon this subject of lunar superstitions in describing the qualifications of Sidrophel the conjurer.

12.

- "He with the moon was more familiar  
 "Than e'er was almanack well-willer;  
 "Her secrets understood so clear,  
 "That some believed he had been there;  
 "Knew when she was in fittest mood  
 "For cutting corns or letting blood."

Barnaby Googe in his translation of Naogeorgus's "Popish kingdom," refers to the same superstitions:—

- "No vaine they pearse, nor enter in the bathes  
 at any day,  
 "Nor pare their nayles, nor from their hed do  
 cut the heare away:  
 "They also put no childe to nurse, nor mend  
 with doing their ground,  
 "Nor medicine do receyve to make their crased  
 bodies sound,  
 "Nor any other thing they do, but earnestly be-  
 fore  
 "They marke the moone how she is placde, and  
 standeth evermore."

An enquiry in the "*British Apollo*," for 1710, exhibits the prevalence of the superstition regarding the lunar influence on the cutting of corns, which, strange to say, is still attended to in many parts of Great Britain; the common people looking in the almanack to find when the moon is in the wane, in order that they may cut their corns with more advantage.

- "Pray tell the querist if he may  
 "Rely on what the vulgar say,  
 "That when the moon's in her increase,  
 "If corns be cut they'll grow apace;  
 "But if you always do take care,  
 "After the full your corns do pare,  
 "They do insensibly decay,  
 "And will, in time, wear quite away:  
 "If this be true, pray let me know,  
 "And give the reason why 'tis so."

The prognostications concerning the weather, which are as numerous as they are fallacious, are generally formed from the appearances presented by the *new moon*. Bad is the presage if *she lies on her back*, or when her horns are pointed towards the zenith.

Equally ominous is it esteemed *when the new moon appears with the old one in her arms*, or, in other words, when we see that part of the moon, which is not enlightened by the sun.

A hazy circle round the moon is accounted, with more reason, a prognostic of rain. If the circle be wide and at some distance from the body of that luminary, it is believed that the rain will be delayed

for some time; if it be close, and, as it were, adherent to the disk of the moon, rain is expected very soon. The prognostics from the look of the moon are also various and were known of old. When she looks fiery or red, like the colour of copper, wind, we are told, must be expected; when pale, rain, when clear and bright, fine weather, agreeably to the proverb,

"Pallida luna pluit, rubicunda flat, alba serena."

The superstitions regarding the moon are, indeed, most multifarious and unaccountable. One of the most ridiculous, which prevails in the north of Scotland, regards the first mention of the word "*moon*," after this planet has made her first appearance, and the same superstition applies to the mention of the name of the day of the week called after that luminary. If Monday be first mentioned in company, by a female, of what age or rank soever, they account it a most unlucky omen. But for some unaccountable cause it gives relief to such feeble minds, if the *dread* term be first mentioned by a male.

Another equally ridiculous and inexplicable superstition is that, which deems it extremely unlucky to see the new moon, for the first time, without having *silver* in the pocket. *Copper* does not obviate the mischief.

The superstitions, connected with the increase, full growth and wane of the moon, were common to both Kelts and Goths. The periods were, with them, the emblems of a rising, flourishing and declining fortune. In the wane they, consequently, carefully avoid entering upon any business of importance. In the Orkneys they do not marry except in the increase of the moon, and they would consider the meat spoiled, were they to kill the cattle during the wane. In Angus, it is believed, that if a child be put from the breast, during the waning of the moon, it will decay, all the time that the moon continues to wane. The superstition with respect to the fatal influence of a waning moon seems indeed to have been general in Scotland, where it was probably derived from the antient Scandinavians, and hence we can account for its prevalence

\* See the prognostics from the appearance of the moon in Plin. Hist. Natur. xviii. 35 and Virgil, *Georgics*.

amongst the Germans and other nations of kindred origin.\*

In the Swedish portion of Scandinavia, according to Jamieson, great influence is, even now, ascribed to the moon, not only as a regulator of the weather, but as influencing the affairs of life in general. The Swedes have still a sort of lunar calendar, said to have been handed down from the monks, to which considerable regard is paid. According to this, no stress is placed on the state of the weather, on the first and second days of the moon. The third is of some account; and it is believed that the weather, during the rest of the month, will correspond to that of the fourth and fifth days. The calendar is thus expressed :—

Prima, secunda, nihil;  
Tertia, aliquid;  
Quarta, quinta, qualis,  
Tota luna talis.

A number of the popular superstitions regarding the moon, still prevalent in this state, equally acknowledge a Scandinavian origin. For example, at this day, the lower orders in Sweden, and even a number of the better sort, will not fell a tree for agricultural purposes, in the wane of the moon: else, it is believed, it will shrink and not be durable. A good house wife will not kill for her family, else the meat will shrivel and melt away in the pot.

Gardeners, in planting and sowing their crops, also pay particular attention to the state of the moon.

"Whether the wane be, or increase,

"Best to set garlick or sow pease."

Tusser in his "*five hunderd points of husbandry*" decides for the former :—

"Sowe peason and beans in the wane of the moone,

"Who soweth them sooner, he soweth too soone ;

"That hath, with the planet, may rest and rise,

"And flourish with bearing, most plentiful wise."

Lastly, Dr. Jamieson has given, in an extract from the poems of the Revd. J. Nicol, an instance of the grossest superstition and divination, practised in some parts of Scotland as well as England, with regard to this luminary. The following is Mr. Nicol's account of this heathenish act.

\* See *Casar, de Bell. Gallic. lib. 1. c. 5. and Tacitus de morib. Germanor.*

"As soon as you see the first new moon of the new year, go to a place where you can set your feet upon a stone naturally fixed in the earth, and lean your back against a tree; and in that posture hail, or address, the moon in the words of the poem which are marked; if you are ever to be married, you will then see an apparition, exactly resembling the future partner of your joys and sorrows."

"O, new moon! I hail thee!

"And gif I'm ere to marry man,

"Or man to marry me,

"His face turn'd this way fasts' ye can,

"Let me my true love see,

"This blessed night!"

Another form is for the girls to get astride of a gate at just sight of the new moon and say :—

"All hail to the moon, all hail to thee,

"I prithee good moon, come tell to me,

"This night who my husband shall be."

Aubrey, in his "miscellanies," who appears, by the bye, to have been somewhat superstitious, actually declares, that he knew two maids, who sang this, and then, going to bed, dreamed of the two men whom they respectively married afterwards.

Such are a few of the numerous superstitions with regard to the "orb of night," medical, meteorological and miscellaneous; all founded upon a want of accurate observation, and the fondness of the human mind for the mysterious. Its direct influence on the animal body is clearly mythical. On atmospheric changes it *may* exert some agency: the aqueous tides may produce corresponding impressions on the aerial medium, but these impressions are so modified by innumerable circumstances of a meteorological character, as to preclude the possibility of attaining any accurate prognostics. There are, doubtless, certain physical circumstances which occasion the shape of to-day's clouds to differ from those which have passed away, but these circumstances are inappreciable by us.

Lastly, the other presumed lunar influences may all be resolved into the most unqualified superstition. Far be it from us to deny the *possibility* of some connexion existing between the relative and the antecedent; between the effect produced and the assigned cause; that is not the question. The *onus probandi* is with the party asserting that such connexion exists; and



the proof must rest, not on one or two detached observations, but on a considerable number carefully watched by those whose minds are devoid of all prepossessions on the subject.

R.D.

FR

## ANTHROPOLOGY.

### ON THE OPINIONS OF VARIOUS NATIONS REGARDING THE BEAUTY OF THE HUMAN FORM.

"Demandez à un crapaud ce que c'est que la beauté, le grand beau, le *to Kalon* : il vous repondra que c'est sa crapaude avec deux gros yeux ronds sortant de sa petite tête, une gueule large et plate, un ventre jaune, un dos brun. Interrogez un nègre de Guinée : le beau est pour lui une peau noire, huileuse, des yeux enfoncés, un nez épaté."

VOLTAIRE *Dictionnaire Philosophique.*  
*Art. Beau.*

"Ask a toad what is beauty, the supremely beautiful, the *to kalon* : he will tell you it is my wife, with two large round eyes projecting from her small head, a large and flat neck, a yellow belly, a brown back. Put the question to a Guinea negro : the beautiful is, with him, an oily, black, skin, hollow eyes and flat nose."

There is no question, which has given rise to more frequent disputations amongst *Æstheticians*,\* if we may, with the Germans, so denominate them, than that of the origin of beauty : whether, for example, such a thing as a beau-ideal actually exists in nature, that which would be esteemed beautiful by the natural, unsophisticated man, the "*Homo sapiens ferus*," as Linnæus imagined him, in other words, by one who has never been placed in the social condition : or whether, on the other hand, all our ideas of beauty are not the result of association.

Like all contested subjects much may be, and much has been, said, and ingeniously too, on both sides of the question : but, again, like all contested points of metaphysical inquiry, notwithstanding the proselytes which each party may have gained from time to time, the matter remains

nearly, if not equally, unsettled as ever, and so it must necessarily continue, seeing that we cannot reduce ourselves to this state of nature, in which we may forget all experience, and be given up to simple, instinctive, actions : and if we were able we should necessarily be incapable of deducing any inferences whatever.

A short inquiry into some points of Anthropology, so far as regards the customs of mankind under certain circumstances, and into the notions which different nations possess regarding the beauty of the human form, will tend to shed some light on this subject.

The follower of the doctrine of original, intrinsic, beauty, has acknowledged that these national feelings and customs are weighty difficulties in his theory. Many of these may, indeed, be satisfactorily explained by him, from particular circumstances of religious or other enthusiasm, perverting the just ideas on the subject : there are numerous others which can only be accounted for, by referring to the force of custom, which frequently renders an individual capable of strongly admiring that which was, in the first instance, highly disagreeable to him. Every one must have experienced this on a sudden and preposterous change of fashion in dress : the eye is actually at first offended. All the ideas of beauty, which custom had assigned to a dress of a former figure, are outraged ; and yet, in a short space of time, the mind becomes so habituated to the change, that every alteration from it excites similar unpleasant sensations.

*Æstheticians* have endeavoured to account for those different national ideas with regard to beauty, in various ways. In general, however, they have wisely referred to the principle of association, and abandoned the idea of any beau-ideal, of one, at least, that would be considered such by all nations.

"One who would change the worship of all climates

"And make a new religion where'er she comes

"Unite the differing faiths of all the world

"To idolize her face."

DRYDEN.

There are several nations, whom *Meinners* classes as the ugly, who are distinguished from the beautiful, not only by a totally different form of body, but who hold their natural deformities to be beauties, and

\* The word *Æsthetick* is, used by the Germans to signify the *Philosophy of Art*.

strive to augment them as much as possible. Amongst the Keltic and Gothic races, who have been esteemed the most noble, it has been extremely rare for any one to hold a real defect to be a beauty: still such instances do occasionally occur. A gentleman, who was particularly handsome, in travelling over the Alps was detained by a fever in one of those villages where almost every adult has the kind of swelling of the neck called *goitre*: technically *Brochocele*; of which some are nearly as big as the head. The first Sunday, that he was able, he went to their church, being a Roman Catholic, to return thanks to God for his recovery. A man of so good a figure and so well dressed had rarely, if ever, been in the walls of that chapel. Every body's eyes were therefore fixed upon him, and as he went out they remarked, sufficiently loud for him to hear them, "Oh! how thoroughly handsome would that man be, if he had but a *goitre*!"

Amongst the "ugly" races there are several nations who actually admire deformities as beauties and do all in their power to magnify and encourage them.

The Chinese and the Southern Asiatics generally consider obesity in this light, and as a mark of honorable distinction. In consequence of this idea they prefer the most nutritious meats and drinks, and spend their lives in the most slothful inaction. The desire for unwieldy obesity, many of the Hindus, of the superior castes, seem to have adopted from the lower races of Mongolian origin who wait upon them; and hence they drink copiously of melted butter and other oleaginous substances, to attain a deformity which was punished by most of the Keltic tribes, as well as by several of the nations of Greece, in antient time, as a mark of a soft and effeminate life. The Hindoos, however, do not esteem obesity in the fair sex, whilst the other orientals reckon a fat female as the *beau-ideal*.

"The Moors of Africa," says Mr. Park, "have singular ideas of feminine perfection: the gracefulness of figure and motion, and a countenance enlivened by expression, are by no means essential points in their standard: with them corpulence and beauty appear to be terms nearly synonymous. A woman of even moderate pretensions, must be one who cannot walk

without a slave under each arm to support her, and a perfect beauty is a load for a camel. In consequence of this prevalent taste for unwieldiness of bulk, the Moorish ladies take great pains to acquire it early in life, and for this purpose many of the young girls are compelled, by their mothers, to devour a great quantity of kouskous and drink a large bowl of Camel's milk every morning. It is of no importance whether the girl has an appetite or not, the kouskous and milk must be swallowed, and obedience is frequently enforced by blows. Mr. Park adds "I have seen a poor girl sit crying with the bowl at her lips for more than an hour, and her mother, with a stick in her hand, watching her all the while, and using the stick without mercy, whenever she observed that her daughter was not swallowing."

It was, probably, from the most common shape of his countrywomen, or perhaps of his *inamorata*, that Rubens delighted to represent even his graces with a considerable share of corpulence, to an extent, indeed, which detracts greatly from their appearance in our estimation.

A nearly globular form of the head is said to be peculiar to the Algonquin and bordering nations, as well as the aboriginal Mongols of Asia, (*Pallas*) and when the heads of their new-born infants deviate from the beau-ideal, the mother uses every exertion to give the yet unossified skull, the desired spherical figure, whence they have been called *Tetes de Boule* or ball heads. (*Chaileroix*) Most savage tribes, however, especially in this continent, prefer the pyramidal shape of the head to every other, and accordingly the Indians about the Mississippi, as well as in the province of Maynas, (*Charlevoix*, *Pallas*) used to apply two pieces of clay, one to the forehead and the other to the back part, on which they placed two thin boards, and, tying a bandage round, draw it tighter and tighter, till it assumed the desired shape.

The practice of lengthening and pointing the heads of children, was formerly, and is still, customary in Asia. Hippocrates (*de Arte, Aquis et locis*, cap. xxxv.) speaks of these, and says they were regarded as a sign of nobility and as very beautiful; accordingly, the mothers strove to mould the heads of the tender infants by pressure, by bandages, and other means,

until they lost their natural form and became long and pointed.

In modern Asia the Druses are said to be the only people, who adhere to the practice of lengthening the heads, and hence they can be readily distinguished from every other Asiatic. Vesalius and Scaliger both assert, that the Genocæ, of old, followed the custom of compressing the heads of their children almost to the roundness of a ball, but it is doubtful whether this is not merely traditional.

Other nations, again, not satisfied with the form of the frontal bone, force back the forehead, either by applying a flat piece of board to it, like the Indians of our own continent (*Lewis and Clarke's travels* chap. xxiii. *Adair's history of the North American Indians* p. 8,) or by iron plates, like the inhabitants of Arracan. By this practice the Caraihs are said to be able to see over their heads.

The Aborigines of Louisiana and most of the other tribes of this continent, according to Ulloa (vol. ii. p. 97,) had the hair growing so low over the face, that it almost touched the eyebrows; but, on the other hand, some Indian tribes eradicated the hair as high as the crown of the head; this, however, does not seem to have been as a means of beautifying, but to prevent the enemy from seizing them by the hair in battle, and to render the operation of scalping difficult.

The nose, again, is sadly distorted or attempted to be distorted and, if we except the ears, it suffers more than any part of the body; these distortions are practised amongst the negroes, Hottentots, Brazilians, Sumatrans, South Sea Islanders &c. The idea seems to be prevalent with some of these nations that the faculty of smelling is rendered acute in proportion to the depression of the nose, and the size of the nostrils, but this does not seem to be physiologically accurate.

The septum narium or division of the nostrils is sometimes perforated and a piece of bone or wood worn in the aperture, often of a considerable size. But a more strange practice is that of the women on the north west coast of America, who make a large horizontal slit in the lower lip, parallel to the opening between the lips and penetrating into the mouth; in this they wear ornaments of different kinds, but generally oval pieces of wood, a little

concave on the two surfaces and grooved at the edge. The smallest of these additional mouths, which Vancouver saw, was  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches long: the largest 3 4-10 inches by  $1\frac{1}{2}$ .

The natives of the neighbouring Fox Islands carry their personal embellishments still farther. They make three incisions in the upper lip; place in the middle one a flat bone or a small coloured stone; and, in each of the side ones, a long pointed piece of bone which bends and reaches almost to the ears. They likewise make a hole through the cartilage of the nose, into which they put a small piece of bone, in such a manner as to keep the nostrils extended. They also pierce holes in the ears and wear in them what little ornaments they can procure. (*Coze* in "Lawrence on Man," p. 356.)

Large ears are much esteemed amongst all Mongolian tribes, and, accordingly, they load them with immense weights from infancy, so that they are sometimes drawn down nearly to the shoulders. Many of the higher castes of Hindustan follow this practice from the Malabars, who inhabit their country and other savage nations. (*Grose and Ovington*.)

In some instances, as amongst the South sea Islanders, a slit is made in the external ear, which is not only inservient to decoration, by holding ornaments, but is also converted to the convenient purpose of receiving knives or other useful articles. The Brazilians, according to Southey, inserted gourds in the slits of their ears, increasing the size until the fist could be passed through and the ears reached the shoulders. When they prepared for battle the ears were fastened behind the head. Condamine and Ulloa saw the lobe of the ear lengthened to four or five inches, so as to touch the shoulders in many cases. The perforations were  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch in diameter.

All the great nations of Southern Asia, the Hindus, Ceylonese, Tunquinese, Siamese, Javanese, Birmans, Buggesses, Malayans, Chinese and Japanese, Madagascans, Amboynese &c. esteem their naturally white, glossy teeth, as a deformity, which ought to be corrected by art, otherwise they would resemble those of dogs, monkeys, and elephants. All these nations consequently dye their teeth a shining black with an empyreumatic oil, extracted from the husk of the cocoa nut or by chew-

ing the areca nut, betel leaf and the chunam or lime. In some of these countries the teeth are moreover covered with leaf gold. This is chiefly practised by the wealthy among the Macassars and the Malays of Sumatra. Marsden affirms, that these gilded teeth have a pretty effect by candlelight.

One of the strangest customs is that of the Gagians, a people on the eastern coast of Africa. When the young females wish to render themselves especially agreeable to their lovers they have four of their front teeth extracted. When the male New Hollanders, too, approach the age of puberty, they have one of the front incisors of the upper jaw knocked out with a singular set of ceremonies; but the exact nature and object of this mutilation is unintelligible.

It is asserted by several writers (Winterbottom, Tuckey, and others) that many of the negro tribes, in Africa, file their teeth quite sharp; a custom which was, for a long time, thought to be peculiar to the Anthropophagous tribes, to enable them to devour their foes the more readily. But Oldendorp found that the practice of filing the teeth was common to many negro nations who had never, probably, preyed on human flesh, or at least had not done so for ages. It is a custom which is very common among the aborigines of southern Asia: the teeth of the betel chewer will not take the intended black till the enamel has been filed off.

Some nations are satisfied with filing away the surface and points of the teeth; others have them pointed or even entirely flat and file them away close to the gums.

The notion, that black teeth are beautiful and that only negroes and monkeys should have white teeth, was formerly prevalent even among the Russians and the practice of blackening the teeth is still very common there.

Some nations, again, admire the beard and cherish its growth—as the Thibetan Lamas and the Chinese; whilst others as carefully eradicate it. The practice of extirpation has been noticed amongst the Tungooses, Calmucks, Japanese, Malays,—the Mindanao, Pelew and Marquesas Islanders,—the Papuas, Sumatrans and amongst the North American Indians.

Large joined eyebrows were highly esteemed by the antients as they are still in Persia.

Again, the projection constituting the calf of the leg is considered to be an unbecoming protuberance by many nations. The female Caribs cause the absorption of the part by bandaging it up, and Charlevoix refers to a tribe of Indians called "Ostrich legs" after a similar custom. More common than this is the unnatural compression of the feet, especially in China. "The first questions," says De la Barbinais, "which a suitor puts to the father of a young woman are; whether she has very long hair, very little eyes, very large, broad and pendulous ears and especially whether she has not feet that are above two inches long? It has been pretended that the Chinese have introduced this contracting of the feet from jealousy, in order that the women may not be able to gad about; but it is more probable that it had its origin in the same false vanity which occasioned the wearing of long nails. Meiners thinks it far more natural to account for it from an "instinct to deform?" an idea which has escaped Messrs. Gall and Spurzheim in their new system of Craniography.

The practice of retarding the growth of the feet, was also common in Peru, according to Ulloa; yet they do not seem to have reduced them to more than from five and a half to six inches in length. With ourselves, tight shoes are not unfrequently worn by the ladies, for a similar purpose.

Some other modes of ornamental corporeal embellishment, which have been practised chiefly among tribes in a more or less rude state, may be briefly referred to.

The operation of tattooing or puncturing and staining the skin, for example, has prevailed, in various degrees, in most parts of the world; but more commonly and extensively in the South Sea Islands, where it is considered to be highly ornamental. In the Washington or new Marquesas Island, wealthy and powerful individuals are often covered with various designs from head to foot. The colour of the tattooed figures, examples of which we frequently see on the arms of sailors and others, resides in the cutis or true skin, the cuticle being unaffected, they are neither extinguished nor rendered fainter by lapse of time and can be removed only by excision. They seem to be out of the action of the absorbents.

Another mode of ornamenting the skin, chiefly practiced in Africa, is that of raised

cicatrices ; a custom referred to by Winterbottom and more recently by Captain Tuckey ; on entering the Congo the latter observed that all the visitors, whether christians or idolaters, had figures raised on their skins in cicatrices, several of them appearing as if embossed. "The figures intended to be represented" says Winterbottom "are first drawn upon the skin with a piece of stick dipped in wood ashes, after which the line is divided by a sharp pointed knife. The wound is then healed as quickly as possible, by washing it with an infusion of bullanta."

Lastly, in some of the most military nations of Africa no man is reckoned handsome that has not five or six scars on his face. This custom may possibly have been introduced, at first, amongst them to make them less afraid of wounds in that part in battle ; but, however this may have been, it had at last so great a share in their idea of beauty, that they now cut and slash the faces of their infants, in order that, when grown up, they may possess those graces which are so necessary to win the hearts of their mistresses.

The Prince of Anamaboo, who had been so long and so much used to the European complexion, yet said of a certain lady, a short time before he quitted London, "that she would be the most charming woman in the world if she were but a negro."

The cases of extensive diversity of taste on the subject of the beauty of the human figure, detailed above, irresistibly lead to the conclusion that there can be no such thing as a universal *beau ideal*. That each nation should have a *natural* standard of its own is easily intelligible ; but that the *unnatural* should be chosen is a singular circumstance. In the examples, already adduced, there is a manifest fondness for deformity, a desire to alter by various means the natural form of the body. It may be said that this is produced by, in many cases, religious or other associations ; and this is undoubtedly true in numerous instances ; but the majority of cases necessarily oppose the idea of original or intrinsic beauty, unless indeed it could be demonstrated that the alterations were still considered as deformities.

Meiners, it has been seen, cuts the gordian knot by the invention of an "instinct to deform" which he ascribes to those nations ; thus furnishing us another example

of that argument ;—the "obscure per obscurius,"—which has possessed so many writers on this subject and especially his own countrymen.

#### ENGLISH PROVINCIALISMS.—No 1.

"Collections of provincial dialects would often have been extremely useful ; many words esteemed peculiar to certain counties being remnants of the language formerly in general use."

NARES.

In order to understand, thoroughly, the various provincial dialects that may prevail in a country, it is necessary to be acquainted with the history of the vernacular language, at different periods : without such a knowledge the most erroneous conclusions may be drawn, and words and expressions be considered as innovations in one province, which have prevailed in others for centuries.

As our object will be, in this and future numbers of this miscellany, to endeavour to deduce various English provincialisms, including our own peculiarities, to their sources : we shall, now, briefly trace the progressive constituents of the language to the present times.

The history of the English language commences with the Anglo-Saxon, for the Kelts, the aborigines of the country, were so completely dispossessed of the greater part of England, that but few traces of the Keltish remain in the language. When the united Angles and Saxons invaded England in the year 450, two similar dialects, derived from them, became predominant : that of the Angles in the provinces to the north of the Thames and that of the Saxon to the south of the river.

The history of the language may be conveniently divided into four great periods.

1. *The Anglo-Saxon period*, from A.D. 450 to 780. In this period Augustine landed from Rome, and, with the christian religion, introduced the Roman alphabet and the germ of arts and sciences, as well as some modifications in the language, especially in the religious portion of it. Of this or the pure Anglo-Saxon period we have, unfortunately, but few specimens remaining : of these interesting relics the most antient are the poems of Cædmon, a monk of Whitby, in Yorkshire, who devoted his

muse to sacred subjects and who died A.D. 680.

2. *The Danico-Saxon period.*—This period commences with the invasion of the Danes, about A.D. 780, who introduced into the provinces of Northumberland, East Anglia and Mercia, of which they gained possession, a Danish dialect, differing from that which the Angles had brought from South Jutland, but not materially: so that they amalgamated with facility. Under Knud or Canute the Great and his two successors, the Danish became the Court language, and that of the other provinces, even the West Saxon, became mixed with it: when, however, Edward the Confessor ascended the throne, the Saxon was again the predominant tongue, but the antient West Saxon remained mixed with the Danish.

What is understood by the term Anglo-Saxon applies to this second period, of which we have numerous specimens extant.

The following is perhaps the oldest and occurs in the Lord's Prayer, and is ascribed, by Wilkins, to King Alfred. It is presumed to bear date about the year 875.

Fæder ure, thu the earth on Heofenum,  
Si thin Nama gehalgod;  
To be cume thin Rice;  
Gewurthe thin willa on Earthan swa swa on  
Heofenum;  
Urne ge daeghwanlican hlaf syle us to daeg;  
And forgyf us ure Gyltas, swa swa we forgyfath  
urum Gyltendum;  
And ne gelaedde thu us on Costnung;  
Ac alyso us of Yfe.

As early as the time of Edward the Confessor, who had received his education in Normandy and had a number of courtiers from that country around his throne, the corrupt Frankish dialect, which prevailed in Normandy, became the spoken language of the Court and higher classes, and with William the Conqueror, in 1066, began the

3. *Normanno-Saxon period,* when the native language became mixed in an irregular and barbarous manner with the Norman, and the latter introduced into legal documents and schools. The children of the great were educated in Normandy: the Saxon was spoken only by the lower classes of society, and institutions were even necessary in the Cloisters to prevent it from being totally neglected. Still, the attention, which was there paid to it by theolo-

gians, as well by poets, had the effect of improving it, and communicating much strength, harmony, and copiousness whilst the French, introduced by William and his warriors, was a mixture of German, Gaulish and corrupt Latin.

The following Paternoster is said to have been sent from Rome by Pope Adrian, in this period, between 1154 and 1159. (*Adelung's Mithridates*, I. 330.)

Ure Fadyr in Heaven rich,  
Thy name be halved ever lich;  
Thou bring us thy michel Bliss;  
Als hit in Heaven y-do,  
Evar in yearth been it also;  
That holy bread that lasteth ay  
Thou sent it us this ilke Day;  
Forgive us all that we have done,  
As we forgyveth uch other mon;  
Ne let ous fall into no Founding;  
Ac shield ous fro the foule Thing. Amen.

4. *The Franco-Saxon period* commenced in the thirteenth century, especially under Edward the First, when the modified native tongue again arose in the towns amongst the Burghers: and, in the reign of Edward the Third, it was the language used in public transactions. Mixed with the more modern French, which the political circumstances of the country rendered unavoidable, this formed the basis of the present English. Its gradual progress towards its present state is exhibited in the following Paternosters: the first of which is contained in "*Camden's Remains*" and is the *English* of 1370.

Our Fadyr, that art in Heavenes,  
Halleod be thy Name;  
Thy kingdom come to;  
Be thy will done in Ertne, as in Hevene;  
Geve to us this Day our Bread, over other substance;  
And forgyf to us our Dettis, as we forgiven to our Dettors;  
And leed us not into Temptation;  
But deliver us from Evil. Amen.

In the next sixty years the language did not undergo any very important change.

#### *English of 1430.*

Oure Fadir that art in Hevenes,  
Halewid be thy Name;  
Thi kingdom come to thee;  
Be thi wil don in Eorthe as in Hevene;  
Give to us this day oure Breed over othere substance;  
And forgyve to us oure Dettis, as we forgiven oure Dettours:

And lede us not into Temptation ;  
But deliver us from Ivel. Amen.

*English of 1526, according to Tindal.*

Our Father, which art in Heven,  
Halowed be thy name ;  
Let thy kingdom come ;  
Thy will be fulfilled as well in Earthe as it is  
Heven ;

Give us this Daye our dayly Bred ;  
And forgive us oure Dettis, as we forgiven our  
Detters ;

And leade us not into Temptation ;  
But deliver us from Evyll.  
For thine is the Kingdom, and the Power, and the  
Glorye for ever.

The English language, then, may be considered as a compound of the British or Keltish ; the Latin, of which a few words only were derived, during the domination of the Romans ; the Anglo-Saxon, the antient German, Danish, Norman and modern French ; owing, also, to the religious connexion, which, for a long time, existed between England and Italy, Italian words were incorporated : by the extension of arts and sciences, Greek technical words of all kinds, and by trade a multitude of other foreign words were received into the language, occasioning it to be one of the most mixed in existence.

Still the language of the Saxons largely predominates. The Paternoster, although satisfactory, as exhibiting the changes in the orthography of words of Saxon origin, does not indicate those, induced by the grafting of the Norman French on the Anglo-Saxon stock. The copiousness and power of the latter will be seen by adducing some lines of our chief authors from a number of extracts given by Mr. Sharon Turner (*History of the Anglo-Saxons*, vol. ii. p. 439,) in which the Saxon words are marked in *Italics*.

SHAKESPEARE.

*To be or not to be that is the question  
Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer  
The stings and arrows of outrageous fortune,  
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,  
And by opposing end them? To die, to sleep ;  
No more! and by a sleep to say we end  
The heart-ach, and the thousand natural shocks  
The flesh is heir to! 'twere a consummation  
Devoutly to be wish'd. To die ; to sleep ;  
To sleep? perchance to dream!*

THOMSON.

*These as they change, Almighty Father! these  
Are but the varied God. The rolling year*

*Is full of thee. Forth in the pleasing spring  
Thy beauty walks, thy tenderness and love.  
Wide flush the fields: the soft'ning air is balm,  
Echo the mountains round; the forest smiles:  
And every sense and every heart is joy.  
Then comes thy glory in the summer months,  
With light and heat resplendent. Then thy sun  
Shoots full perfection through the swelling year.*

SPENCER.

*Hard is the doubt and difficult to deem  
When all three kinds of love together meet,  
And do dispart the heart with power extreme,  
Whether shall weigh the balance down, to weat  
The dear affection unto kindred sweet  
Or raging fire of love to woman kind  
Or zeal of friends, combin'd with virtues meet:  
But of them all the hand of virtuous mind  
Me seems the gentle heart should most assured  
bind.*

The above remarks will serve as an introduction to the consideration of English Provincialisms, and, as it will be our object to shew, that by far the greater part of the expressions, used in this country, either as fancied peculiarities or vulgarisms, are not indigenous, an inquiry will be necessary into the mode in which provincialisms, in general, take their origin.

In the first place, the common belief, that the broad dialects, observed in various parts of England, in the north and west, for example, are mere corruptions of good English, is entirely erroneous. The converse of this opinion would be nearer the reality. The dialects, spoken in the parts alluded to, are not far removed from the state in which they existed, centuries ago : whilst the standard English has been undergoing constant mutations until it attained its present condition. Adelung in his "*Mithridates*" has asserted, that the Metropolitan English is understood over all the country : but he does not speak as an ear witness : the fact is, that in some of the mountainous regions of Cumberland and Yorkshire, the well educated Englishman would be as little intelligible to the natives as they would be to him.

The Kelts were the earliest inhabitants of England, the aborigines : these antient people, by the arrival of the Gothic tribes, Saxons, Danes, &c. were driven, from their possessions, into the western parts of the island, into Wales and a portion into the mountainous regions of Cornwall and of Cumberland, which latter county was named after them : other portions, either at that

time or previously, had migrated to the highlands of Scotland, constituting the *Gaels*, whilst others crossed the Irish sea, and possessed themselves of the western portions of Ireland, more especially, constituting the *Ibero-Kelts* or *Erse*. The Saxons occupied, as we have seen, the southern and western portions of England, at the period of the Norman invasion: the Danes landed on the eastern coast, in Northumberland, Yorkshire &c. and hence we can understand why, in the dialect of Cornwall, there is such a multitude of Keltic words: why those of Ireland, of the wild Irish, and of the Highlanders are Keltic and why, in the southern and western portions of England, Saxonisms prevail; whilst words of Danish extraction are more common in the northeastern counties. Cumberland ought also to possess, in her dialect, a greater proportion of Keltic words: but, by being a border county and exposed to constant inroads from the Scots, she has rather imbibed the peculiarities of the latter.

To those, who have never considered the subject, it may seem strange, that almost every county of England should have its peculiar dialect, and that they should differ, in some cases, so widely from each other: but this feeling will vanish after a little reflection. No great length of time has elapsed since travelling existed, to any considerable extent, between the distant counties and the metropolis. Not very long ago a native of Cumberland or of the west of England never thought of travelling to the great city, without first of all making his will: for, one hundred years ago, the journey from one of the northern counties, say Cumberland, was a matter on which to ponder; occupying fourteen days: although it can now be performed in forty hours.

Mr. James Jennings, in his "*Observations on some of the dialects of the West of England*" has given a ballad, founded on an incident, that occurred in the early part of last century, in which there is an allusion to this custom before undertaking a journey to the metropolis.

"Mr. Guy was a gennelman  
"O' Huntspill, well known  
"As a grazier, a hirsch one,  
"Wi' loas o'hiz awn.

"A oten went ta Lunnun  
"Hiz cattle vor ta zill:

"All tha hosses that a rawd  
"Niver minded hadge or hill.  
"A war afeard o' naw one;  
"A niver made hiz will.  
"Like wither vawk, avaur a went  
"Hiz cattle vor ta zill" P. 147.

The improved condition of travelling has, as a matter of necessity, induced a greater intercourse; and occasioned the decay of several provincial distinctions in language and manners, which had previously prevailed, for centuries, without modification.

The provincialisms, if we may so term them, met with in this country, are not exactly of the same character or origin as those in England. Here, they of course, vary, according to the country whence the settlers proceeded. If the majority of such settlers were Irish, or Scotch, from Cumberland or Devonshire, the prevailing language would be that of those countries, but, as a continual admixture has taken place since the first settlement, no historical evidence can be deduced from the dialects now spoken.

In a future number it will be our endeavour to shew, that by far the greater part of the peculiarities, in this state particularly, are not the produce of this country, but have been imported with the early emigrants; that many of them were correct English at the time, or, at least, were used by writers of repute; and hence that the dialect spoken here is really more *original* than the present standard English: that it has more antiquity and ought not to be considered as a corruption from the present English, but as its precursor. New words have undoubtedly crept in, but these are few in number, and can only be regarded in the light of exceptions.

Before, however, we can rightly appreciate the origin of the various provincialisms of the different states of the Union, and of the one in which we live, especially, it will be necessary to point out some of the dialects, prevalent in Great Britain: and, accordingly, in an early number, we shall first inquire into the *cockney* peculiarities, whence many of our own, by far the greater proportion indeed, would seem to have originated.

RD W. Sep.

#### CUTTING OFF THE HAIR OF DEAD PERSONS.

The custom of cutting off locks of hair



from the dead, which is now practised in order that the survivors may possess some close memorials of a departed friend, seems to have originated in other feelings. With the antient Greeks and Romans, a lock of hair was cut from dying persons and regarded as a kind of offering to the infernal deities. Euripides, in his "*Alcestis*," introduces death with a sword going to cut off some of the hair of Alcestis, whom the fates had adjudged to die instead of her husband Admetus; Juno orders Iris to perform the same office to Dido:—

"Ergo Iris cruceis per cælum rōscida pennis,  
"Mille trahens varios adverso sole colores,  
"Devolat, et supra caput astitit; "hunc ego  
Diti

"Sacrum, jussa fero, teque isto corpore solvo,"

"Sic ait, et dextra crinem secat: omnis et una  
"Dilapsus calor, atque in ventos vita recessit."  
Virgil, *Æneid*, iv. 606.

"Downward the various goddess took her flight  
"And drew a thousand colours from the light:  
"Then stood above the dying lover's head,  
"And said: 'I thus devote thee to the dead;  
"This offering to th' infernal gods I bear.'  
"Thus while she spoke she cut the fatal hair,  
"The struggling soul was loos'd and life dissolv'd in air."

Dryden.

It was a common practice, also, for the relations and friends of the deceased to cut off their own hair and to scatter it upon the grave and the dead body.

Spencer appears to allude to this custom in 1st. canto of the 2d. book of "*Faerie Queene*."

"The dead knight's sword out of his sheath he drew,

With which he cutt a lock of all their beare,  
Which medling with their blood and earth he threw

Into the grave, and gan devoutley sweare;  
Such and such evil God on Guyon reare,  
And worse and worse, young orphane, be thy payne,

If I, or thou, dew vengeance do forbear,  
Till guiltie blood her guerdon doe obtayne!  
So, shedding many teares, they clos'd the earth agayne."

R.D. —

#### GREAT EARTHQUAKE IN SPAIN.

A Madrid Journal of the 31st. of March contains some afflicting details regarding

the dreadful earthquake, which occasioned such extensive desolation, on the 21st. of March, in the kingdoms of Murcia, and Valencia. In Murcia, a town of thirty six thousand inhabitants, it was preceded by a terrific rumbling, which made the inhabitants run out of their houses, yet the damage done by it was not considerable; the stone buildings alone suffered, as the cathedral, several monasteries and the bridges. In Orihuela, a town of twenty two thousand inhabitants, several spires were thrown down, almost all the public buildings ruined and a great part of the private houses rent to pieces. Without the town the effects of the earthquake were still more terrible; in the whole plain of Orihuela scarcely a house was left inhabitable; and several persons were buried under the ruins. More recent accounts from Murcia and Orihuela are still alarming; the earthquakes continued; the volcanoes still vomited all sorts of matter. The city of Murcia is almost entirely deserted. According to the report of a person just arrived from the scene of these disasters, every person is in consternation and despair. Families are reduced to poverty, and, to add to the evils, others have broken limbs or are crippled for the rest of their lives. But what adds most to the public distress is, that bands of robbers and assassins are not only going about the fields, but are lodged in the houses which had been abandoned by their owners, and were committing all sorts of crimes. Near Orihuela, in the country, a priest had been assassinated in order to obtain the little money he had saved with him.

—kp

#### CLAP-DISH.

"A leper with a clap-dish, (to give notice  
"He is infectious.")

MASSINGER'S "*Parliament of love*."

Massinger's remark explains the origin of the *clap-dish* as the emblem of the leper. The leprosy was once very common in England, owing partly to the poor diet and want of cleanliness, amongst the poorer classes. The older poets seldom mention a leper without noticing, at the same time, his constant accompaniments, the cup and clapper. Thus Henryson:—

"Thus shalt thou go begging from hous to hous,  
With cuppe and clapper, like a Lazarous."

*Testament of Cresseido.*

To clap your dish at a wrong man's door is a proverb, referred to by Ray and quoted by Jonson in his "*Every man in his humour*," although the custom was probably, in his time, assumed chiefly by beggars to proclaim their necessities. To this mode of begging many of the old writers frequently advert; and among the rest, Churchyard, in a passage of picturesque merit. It is Jane Shore who speaks:—

Where I was wont the golden chaines to wear,

A payre of beads about my necke was wound,  
A linen cloth was lapt about my heare;

A ragged gowne that trailed on the ground,  
A dish that clapt, and gave a heavy sound,

A staying staffe, and wallet there withall,  
I bear about, as witnessse for my fall."

*Challenge*, 143.

It was once, also, the practice for bea-  
dles and other inferior parish officers to go  
from door to door, with a clap-dish, solicit-  
ing charity for those unhappy sufferers who  
are now better relieved by parochial con-  
tributions. Thus Matheo, in the second  
part of the *Honest whore*. "Must I be fed  
with chippings? You were best get a  
*clap-dish*, and say you are proctor to some  
spittle house."

The clapper was not, as some have im-  
agined, an instrument calculated for mak-  
ing a noise; it was simply the cover of  
the cup or dish, which the miserable wretch  
opened and shut with a loud clap at the  
doors of the well disposed.

The *clap-dish* appears to have the same  
meaning as the *clack-dish*, in "*Measure  
for measure*."

*RP*, -

#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

The session of the University will com-  
mence on the 10th. inst. Many students  
have already arrived.

*Public Examination.*—(Continued from  
page 192.)

#### SCHOOL OF LAW.

1. What are the ages at which male and fe-  
males are competent to different legal purposes?  
viz.

Males. To take the oath of allegiance? When  
at years of discretion to marry? To  
choose a guardian? To make a testa-  
ment of personal estate (by the com-

mon law? by the Act of Assembly)?

To be an executor? To alienate land?

Females. To be betrothed? To be entitled to  
dower? When at years of discretion  
to consent or disagree to marriage?  
To bequeath personal estate? To  
choose a guardian? To be an exe-  
cutrix? To dispose of herself and  
land?

2. How is water considered in law? And by  
what description must an action be brought to  
recover it? and what passes in law by a grant of  
the water?

3. What is a right of way? And according to  
the common law on what three reasons may it be  
grounded? Illustrate them by examples.

4. What four requisites are necessary to make  
a tenancy by curtesy?

5. What are the five species of conveyances  
to which the statute of uses has given rise?  
Which three principal ones of these has the Vir-  
ginia statute adopted? Describe each of these  
particularly, and the operation by which they ef-  
fectuate the transfer of the land without the ne-  
cessity of livery of seisin?

6. On what three accounts may a qualified  
property subsist in animals *fera natura*?

7. Of what two sorts is the remedy for false  
imprisonment? What are the four means which  
may be employed (at common law) for removing  
the injury? And which of them is now the most  
usual and effectual means in all manner of illegal  
confinement? What is the remedy by way of  
*satisfaction* of the injury?

8. From what causes do arrests of judgment  
(after verdict) arise? What is an invariable rule,  
with regard to arrests of judgment on matters of  
law, and will this rule hold *converso*? In other  
words, how far may matters be urged as errors  
in arrest of judgment, which might have been  
taken advantage of on demurrer?

9. From what day shall judgment bind land of  
the debtor in the hands of a *bona fide* purchaser?  
And from what day shall the writ of execution  
against the goods bind them in the hands of a  
stranger or purchaser?

10. What is a writ of *fieri facias*? Against  
whom does it lie? What doors may be broken  
in its execution? To whom in certain cases has  
the law given a lien upon the goods which must  
first be paid? And to what amount? And, what  
further remedy has the plaintiff, if part only of  
his debt be levied on a *fieri facias*?

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SEPT. 16, 1829.

## THE CONSTITUTION OF VIRGINIA.

### LETTER III.

My Dear Sir,

Having freely expressed to you my opinion that population should form the basis of representation, and that it would be unjust and impolitic as it respects ourselves, and discreditable and injurious to us with others, not to regard slaves as a part of the population, we will now consider the *qualifications of the voters, or electors*; a subject which is likely to excite more interest than any other, except the one already discussed.

Supposing the members of the convention to partake of the diversity of opinion which exists in the community, some will insist on limiting the right of suffrage, as at present, to freeholders; some will be willing to extend it to all house keepers, and masters of families; and others again will be in favor of extending it to all freemen who pay taxes, and bear arms. Let us take a summary view of the arguments preferred by each of these parties.

The advocates for continuing the right of suffrage, as it now is, say, that this is a question not of abstract, primitive, *right*, but of political expediency; since the most strenuous sticklers for natural right admit that it must have some limitation, founded on considerations of policy. None of them would suffer this important franchise to be exercised by slaves, children, madmen or idiots. Why? Because, they would not be likely to exercise it properly, or so as to benefit the community. Since, then, there must be some limit, the proper question is what is the limit which the public interest most recommends; what provision on this subject is likely to select the most fit and capable persons as legislators?

They say, that the public good thus furnishing the only rule of restriction, one of the best securities that the right of suffrage will be properly exercised, is that the interest of the voter be indentified with that of the country, and that nothing can afford such strong presumptive evidence of this community of interests as the ownership of a part of the soil. That a citizen who owns no freehold, cannot be supposed to have an equally lively or lasting attachment to his country; as he can more easily emigrate in a season of danger or difficulty; or, if he remains, can put his property out of the reach of the government, and exempt it from its share of the common burthens. That a large proportion of persons without land are without property of any species, and are liable to somewhat of the same objection as children and married women, as they have not independence of will—the particular mode in which persons in a state of indigence and dependance may exercise the right of voting being an object of small importance compared with that of obtaining a livelihood. In proof of the little value set on the elective franchise by this class of persons, they adduce numerous examples of cases in which ship's crews and the labourers in a manufactory have voted according to the wishes of those who paid and fed them.

They admit that individuals may have large property without owning land, and may be among the most respectable as well as independent members of the community, but they insist, that by far the larger part of those who are without real estate, are not of this character; that the rule of exclusion is founded on probabilities, and the preponderance of benefits; and that it is far better that here and there an individual, who would exercise the power very

discreetly, should be excluded, (particularly as it would be easy for such a one to qualify himself,) than to admit a much larger number, who would exercise it without any discretion, and at the bidding of another. They insist that it would be vain to permit property of any other species than land to be a qualification, since it has been found in practice, that, as to personal estate, frauds are so easily practised as to make the provision merely nominal; a bond; a horse, or a watch, in possession of the voter, however obtained, being deemed sufficient evidence of ownership. That in this way the restriction is easily evaded, and that men become gradually familiarized to these evasions, until they are, by general consent, connived at and disregarded. That, on the other hand, but few persons are ever able to give that precise evidence of owning real estate which the laws require, unless they are *bona fide* owners. For these reasons, they maintain that in no other way are you likely to obtain so large a proportion of honest, intelligent, patriotic voters, as by confining the right of voting to those who are the owners of the soil, and who, consequently, feel the country itself to be their property.

Those who contend for an extension of the right of suffrage, on the other hand, say, that while they admit this question to be one of expediency, it is so in common with every other question of political right. That there can be no such right, whether natural or acquired—no principle however fundamental—which, if traced to its source, does not derive its obligation from the fact that it is conducive to human happiness; and that they are willing to try the present question by the same test of *utility*.

They insist, that it is an obvious principle both of justice and policy, that those who bear the burthens of government should concur in appointing those who lay them; that those who are to fight the battles of the country should have a vote in making war; and, in short, that those who are affected by the laws, should have a share in making them. That if any discrimination is to be made among our citizens, in the distribution of political power, it should be in favor of those who risque their lives in defence of the country, rather than of those who merely contribute their property; that, as to the public revenue, it is derived from the joint products of land and labour, and

that it can be of no more importance whether the voter owes his support to the one or the other source, than whether the freeholder cultivates Indian corn, or wheat, or the soldier fights on horseback or on foot. They add that this extension of the right of suffrage to all who constitute its strength and its wealth, being conformable to most men's ideas of right and expediency, as is evinced by the constitutions of all the other states, it ought to be adopted, unless it can be clearly shown that such extension would endanger the public interests. The burthen of proof is therefore thrown on those who oppose the extension; and where the argument is doubtful, we ought to take that course which is consonant to equality of rights among our citizens; to the usages of the other states; the urgent claims of those who are without freeholds; and the sympathies and sense of justice of many of the freeholders themselves.

They contend that no such danger exists; that if we are to be guided by experience, our best instructor in legislation, the right of suffrage can be as safely, as discreetly, as beneficially, exercised by those who have no lands, as by those who have; since the other states exhibit as many proofs of wise government as Virginia, when tested by any practical result whatever in the progress of their wealth or population; in the state of their agriculture, commerce or manufactures; of their religion, morals, or literature.

They allege that some of the objections against the extension of the right of suffrage are inconsistent with each other. That while it is contended, by some of the restrictionists, that the poor and dependent classes of the community are less capable of giving an intelligent vote, and less likely to give an honest one, and that therefore they would adulterate the character of the election, and would endanger the property of the wealthy classes; it is maintained by others, that the extension would in fact increase the weight and influence of wealth; of the landholder, the shipowner, and the manufacturer; and thus, under the semblance of producing equality of civil rights, it would favor inequality. Now, it is clear, the advocates for extension say, that if the last argument has any force, and it is admitted to have some, it is an answer to the first; and that the fear that the superior

intelligence and independence of people of property will be deprived of their legitimate influence, is imaginary. They add that, reasoning on probabilities, there would occasionally be cases, in which the extension of the right of suffrage would lessen the weight of the more intelligent classes; but that, in others it would be increased; and that thus the practical result in legislation would not materially vary from that produced by freehold elections. In confirmation of this, they assert, that on a careful examination of the characters of the representatives chosen by the states, where a general suffrage prevails, they do not seem to be different from those selected in Virginia by freeholders; men of small property and ultra-democratic principles being often chosen by the latter, while men of wealth and family, the natural aristocracy of the country, are as often chosen by the former; that you can, in a word, discover nothing in which the representatives from Virginia, differ generally from those of the Carolinas or Georgia; or in which the representatives of Connecticut, before the right of suffrage was extended there, differed from those of Massachusetts.

They say, that some of the states afford us an opportunity of comparing the effects of *freehold* suffrage, and *general* suffrage. In North Carolina, for instance, the members of the Senate are chosen by freeholders, and those of the more numerous branch, (the House of Commons) by all freemen who pay taxes; and they confidently challenge their opponents to shew that the selection of representatives made by the last mentioned class is inferior to that made by the first, in talents or respectability. Our own state, too, furnishes them with the materials of making a similar comparison. In Williamsburg, the ancient metropolis of the state, and in the borough of Norfolk, according to their original charters, all house-keepers, or *potboilers*, as they are called, are entitled to vote; yet those corporations have always shewn themselves as capable of making proper selections of representatives, as the freeholders of any county whatever. Norfolk has, indeed, generally been unusually well represented in the state legislature. As an extension of the right of suffrage in these places, which is far from inconsiderable, has produced no visible effects; certainly none that are evil; the fact, they say, affords a fair presump-

tion that a still further extension would be equally innocent of the mischiefs attributed to it by the advocates for restriction.

Having thus shewn the apprehended dangers of extending the right of suffrage to be ideal, they say that the considerations that have been mentioned, in favor of its extension, remain in full force. To these they add some strong motives of public policy, as that the extension would remove a continual source of heart burning and civil dissension among ourselves; that the sense of injustice, already so great, may be expected to grow with the growth of our towns, and, consequently, with the increase of mechanics, manufacturers, and members of the learned professions, who will often find it more convenient, and sometimes *prefer*, to live in rented houses, rather than in houses of their own; and who will increase in intelligence as well as numbers; and besides the wisdom of making every class of citizens contented with the government, that it would be particularly impolitic to subject any class of *productive labourers* to civil disabilities; as it could not but have the effect of encouraging some of them to leave the state, and of preventing yet more from migrating to it; and that this injurious operation on a class so useful and so much wanted in Virginia, would be especially felt in the counties bordering on other states, where the contrast of their own insignificance with the political importance of their neighbours, would be so strikingly placed before the eyes of our citizens. They attribute the greater number of mechanics and useful artisans, who migrate to Maryland than to Virginia, and her advantage over us in wealth, and density of population, principally to the higher political privileges she confers on this class. And lastly, they appeal to our patriotic sympathies, and insist that if any thing is likely to cherish the love of country, and beget in the whole community, a spirit of devotion to its defence, it must be the circumstance, that the humblest individual in society feels himself to be an integral part of the state; that his voice is equal to that of the proudest and richest in choosing its highest officers; and that, in the exercise of this function of sovereign power, he can act without fear or restraint. Such a man must necessarily be proud of a state of which he is thus a constituent part; he must be grateful to a government which

has thus exalted him to a level with the highest; he must be ever ready to hazard his life for a country, thus dear to his affections, and thus flattering to his pride. Nor is this all; for his own self-respect, the source of so many meritorious actions, must be increased by the political importance thus conferred on him by the laws. We accordingly find that the yeomanry of a country have been no where more ready to fight its battles, or have fought them more gallantly, than where the elective franchise has been most extended, as we have seen, for example, in the states of Tennessee and Kentucky; and there are not a few who augur that the effect of adding to the personal importance of more than one half of our citizens, by conferring on them, the noble privilege of choosing and changing their own legislators, will be, to infuse a new spirit of enterprise into the people of the state, and a new energy into its councils.

These are, however, as you know; some, and I confess to you that I am one of the number, who, while they acknowledge the force of the preceding arguments in favor of extension, would stop far short of the general suffrage which is permitted in most of the states.

The advocates for political reform should always recollect that a people may become gradually adapted to a constitution, as well as a constitution be changed to suit a people; and that, in this way, an ancient constitution may often be ill-exchanged for one originally its superior. Even where the tastes and temper of the people have not completely moulded themselves to their constitution, it will nevertheless, be found, that long established laws and usages always have a tendency to remedy their own inconveniences; for you will agree, Sir, that there is a *vis medicatrix* in the body politic, as well as the body natural, which, by the beneficence of the creator, is always working out remedies for every evil. Now, whenever a cure is affected in another way, there is danger that the equipoise in the system will be for a time destroyed, and that the natural remedy itself will become not only useless, but hurtful. If I mistake not, you will see this subject ably handled by Burke, the most philosophical of statesmen, on an occasion in which his philosophy was not tinctured with passion.

But to apply these general maxims: I should not think it prudent to extend the right of suffrage at once to so many as one half, or more than one half, the freemen of the state; for we cannot be sure that they would exercise the right with the same sobriety and discretion, as if they had been previously accustomed to it. If, for example, the new voters, resenting the past opposition to their wishes, and bound together by the magic of a party name, such as conventionists, reformers, or radicals, were to act in concert, and to be influenced by a vindictive spirit, they would, in that case, not only exclude from the public councils some of our ablest and best men, who have honestly differed from them, but fill the country with civil discord, so unfriendly to wise legislation, and, in itself, an evil of no trifling character.

While, then, some extension of the right of suffrage, and a considerable one, is due to public opinion, and to our sense of justice, which is shocked that a majority of the freemen, of the state, (the non-freeholders) should be excluded from all share in its government, some limit to that extension is also due to prudence, and the general policy of making political changes with moderation. The point at which it may be advisable to stop will depend greatly, as it seems to me, on the manner in which the convention shall dispose of the appointing power. If you give the election of the chief magistrate and other executive officers to the people, as is done in some of the states, then the evils apprehended from extending the elective franchise will be far more probable, and, consequently, greater restriction will be allowable. But if you leave the power of making these appointments with the legislature, where it now is, you may safely extend the right much farther. It is the popular election of governor, clerks, and sheriffs, in some of the states, which has occasioned their party intolerance, and tumultuous violence, and not in choosing their legislators; and the farther the right of suffrage is extended, the greater these evils will be. The inconvenience of multiplying popular elections will be more properly considered hereafter.

I am respectfully, yours.

V.

## ENGLISH PROVINCIALISMS.—No 2.

"Collections of provincial dialects would often have been extremely useful; many words esteemed peculiar to certain counties being remnants of the language formerly in general use."

NARES.

## COCKNEY DIALECT.

The daily dialect of London, we shall see, is by no means of recent origin; many of its peculiarities are as old as the word cockney, the derivation of which, chronologically and etymologically, is involved in impenetrable obscurity; notwithstanding it has engaged the attention of every lexicographer.

The vagaries indulged on this subject are hardly worthy of enumeration. Caubaon derives it from the Geek *Oukoyevēs* "*Oicogenēs*"—born and bred at home. Others from the French *Coquin*, a rogue. All have heard of the absurd story of its being compounded of *cock* and *neigh*: that, once upon a time, a thorough bred Londoner went into the country, and, on first hearing a horse *neigh*, cried out "how the horse *laughs*!" Being informed that the noise made by the horse was called *neighing* and having, on the following morning, heard the cock crow, he exclaimed that the *cock neighed*! This story is in the mouth of every one, but it is probably as devoid of reality as it is common.

Cockney is clearly used, by the older writers, to signify a fellow devoid of wit and has probably, either primarily or secondarily been applied to citizens of London, who may be supposed to be ignorant, as many of them doubtless are, of every thing else in the world besides London. "*Vir urbanus, rerum rusticarum prorsus ignarus*"—a citizen completely ignorant of rural affairs," as Skinner has defined the word.

In Chaucer it has such a signification.

"I shall be held a daffe or a cockney."

And in King Lear:—

"Cry to it, Nuncle, as the cockney did to the eels, when she put them into the pasty alive:—she rapped them o'th' coxcombs with a stick, and cried, down, wantons, down! It was her brother that, in pure kindness to his horse, *buttered* his hay."

Pegge in his "*Anecdotes of the English Language*" has adduced other etymologies,

but they are not worthy of enumeration.

To afford a specimen of the cockney dialect, we will suppose an inhabitant of Tooley street; the neighbourhood generally selected for the most perfect examples of cockneyisms,—a Jimmy Green from Tom and Jerry, addressing some parochial assembly in the following language.

"Mr. Chearman, 1.

Although I have *riz*, 2 much *debilitated*, 3 having been *attacked* 4 by the *palaretick*, 5 I could *no* *hows* 6 have *set* 7 quietly, or suffered the *vulgularity*, 8 *rich* 9 has *fell* 10 from the *gemman* 11 in the black *gownd* 12—*despisable* 13 as it is, to pass unnoticed. He seems to me, sir, to be *disgruntled*, 14 and *obstropolous* 15 to a degree *rich* is *perdigious*: 16 his *stupendious* 17 *imperance* 17\* is to me a *progidy* 18: it has *kiered* 19 me *vith* confusion. My *curiosity* 20 has been excited but I have more *scrupulosity* 21 than to be a *partender* 22 either in his *wemon* 23 or that of the *bachelidor*, 24 *contagious* 25 to him, in the corner of the *Chimley* 26: whose remarks have been *more* *worser* 27 than *his'n*. 28 I am not, sir, *aggravated*, 29 that's *unpossible*, 30 tho' I'm *duberous* 31 *vether* in my present *sittiation* 32 I can speak on the *whole* *tote*, 33 *successfully*. 34 Having been in *eminent* 35 danger, from having *cotched* 36 cold and nearly *gone* *dead*, 37 my *potteccary* 38 has *perwented* 39 me from engaging in any *skrimidge*; 40 even now the *scrowedge* 41 and *squeedge* 42 around me, from such a *conquest* 43 of people, *misleasts* 44 me considerably.

*Ven* the *gemman*, charges me with *colloguing*, 45 he has *unbethought* *himself*; 46 he has *stagnated* 47 me. I did not think *von* *solentary* 48 person would have stated a thing so *contrary* 49 to my *chara'cter*. 50 *Vy* has he *throw'd* 51 out such *insinuations* 52 against me. He says I'm *luxurious* 53 in my speech. I'm *blow'd*, 54 if he a'n't the *moral* 55 of every thing *jocotious*. 56 He is sore and *remembers* 57 one of the man who had *fit* 58 and *bin* *licked* 59. But to return to the motion *afore* 60 the house. I *vish* to say a vord on't *vonst* for all 61 and that *ere* 62 is *this ere*. The point in, *shall* us 63 adopt the motion. Sir, I never *know'd*, no *wheres*, 64 no good come of haste, *not by no means*, no not in the *most* *learnedst* 65 bodies as is. "Sir, I *vote* for an adjournment and, if *so be as* *how*, 66 my constituents should *ax* 67 mo *vy* I have *woted* thus, I shall not *kick* against the *postesses*. 68, I will tell them that had I *seed* 69 that the *gemman's* motion *mought* 70 have been lost, I *would* not have *rent* 71 so far. (*Vaite*! I'm a *dry* 72 give me a glass of *stupid*. 73) Sir I *vote* to ad-

journal, that *ve* may *fetch a walk* 74 and every man have time to think for *hissself*, 75 *a'ter* 76 having taken his *ingons* 77 and *taters*," 78

1. *Chearman*. This pronunciation is common, not only in this state but in others of the Union.

2. *Riz*. A common error for *risen*, as *fell* for *fallen*. The honest *Cit* if asked, what news? Would say that "rum had *riz* and sugar *fell*." The mistakes with regard to *fell* are numerous in good writers.

"Sure some disaster has *befell*."—GAY.

3. *Debilitated* for *debilitated* and *necessitated* for *necessitated* are pure vulgarisms.

4. *Attackted*, is common in Virginia; the verb being imagined to be *attack*, like *transact* &c.

5. *Palaretick*, a mere metathesis for *paralytic*.

6. *No hows, every wheres, any hows, any wheres*, and *somehows* are very common in the south of England as they are in the state of New York &c.

7. *Sot*, from *set* (for the cockneys like the Virginians have no verb to sit) like *got* from *get*.

8. *Wulgularity*, to harmonize with *singularity*, &c.

9. *Vich*. The substitution of the letters *v* and *w* is one of the most prevalent orthoepical errors of the cockney. It is not confined, however, to London: in Kent it is even more offensively common than in the metropolis.

"Please your vorship" said an offender, recently, who was carried before the lord Mayor of London. "I vas just a vaulking through that 'ere place vere these here people sells the toggery, and I had a vaistcoat vat I bought in the t'other end of the town. Vell, your Lordship, this here man (the officer) comed up to me and say's 'I'll buy that 'ere vaistcoat.' 'No,' says I, 'for it a'nt lawful (your Vorship I knowed it wa'nt the law) for to sell this here vaistcoat in this here place.' Vith that, your Vorship, he says to me, 'I'll pull you afore the Lord Mayor,' and so I comed to tell your Lordship the rights on it, S'elp me G—d [great laughter]."

Another offensive mispronunciation is placing the *h* aspirate before a vowel, or what the cockney would call "exasperating the *h*" and omitting its sound where necessary. "An orse is a hanimal of vonderful docity."

10. *Fell* has been already noticed.

11. *Gemman*. A common abbreviation of *gentleman*.

12. *Gownd*. The final *d* seems to have been added, as suggested by Mr. Pegge, to finish the word, analogous to *sound*, *pound*, *ground* &c. *Drownd* is served in the same manner, whence *drownded*. Even the verb to *foal* has its participle in Virginia made *foalded*.

A gentleman, having remarked, that his mare had just *foalded*, a facetious individual who was present, observed that it would be more correct to say "she had unfolded."

13. *Despisable*. A short formation from *despise*.

14. *Disgruntled*, *offended*. A strange word, but, according to Pegge, used in Sir Philip Warwick's memoirs, where, speaking of the Earl of Winchester's being made a prisoner in the house of his daughter, the Countess of Rutland, he says, the lady was much *disgruntled* at it.

15. *Obstropolous*, obstreperous, vociferous, turbulent. This misnomer is almost universal over England.

"Then rough hewn tar,

"Who sail'd had far,

"Cries out, my lads! give o're;

"Since, body of me!

"You can't agree,

"Cease such *obstropolous* roar."

BENWELL VILLAGE.

16. *Perdigious* for *prodigious*.

17. *Stupendious*, needs no comment.

17\*. *Imperance* for *impudence*.

"Who's going to stand any o' your *imperance*."

18. *Progidy*, a mere metathesis or change of letters.

19. *Kivered* for *covered* is common all over the southern part of England as it is in the southern states.

"I've kivered my head with green baize."

COCKNEY SONG.

20. *Curocity* for *curiosity* and *curous* for *curious*—common cockneyisms.

21. *Scrupulosity* for *scruple*, formed from *scrupulous* as *curocity* from *curous*.

22. *Partender* for *partner*.

23. *Wemon* for *venom* and *wemonous* for *venomous* are instances of metathesis.

24. *Bacheldor* for *bachelor*.

25. *Contagious* for *contiguous*, a very common error.

26. *Chimley* for *chimney* is a universal



mistake over England as it is in this country.

27. *More worser*. Double comparatives are great favorites with the cockneys, as they were with many of the older poets.

"Nor that I am *more better*

"Than Prospero."—TEMPEST.

"*More sharper* than your swords."

HENRY V.

28. *His'n* as well as *hern*, *ourn*, *yourn*, &c.

In the year 1575, Master R. Laneham, who seems to have been a keeper of the Council Chamber, and a travelled man, writes to his friend Master Humfrey Martin, a Mercer, an account of Queen Elizabeth's reception at Kenilworth Castle, wherein he describes some person, who, after praying for her majesty's perpetual felicity, finishes with the humblest subjection both of "*him and hizzen*." Pegge, p. 197.

29. *Aggravated* for *irritated*.

30. *Impossible* for *impossible* an old word not in Johnson, but admitted by Todd: though used only by the vulgar, both in the south and north of England.

31. *Duberous* for *dubious*.

32. *Sittiation* for *situation*.

33. *Whole-tote*. The whole, a pleonasm.

34. *Successfully* for *successively*. A common error, but not so much so as *respectively* for *respectfully*, which is a vulgarity over all England, although formerly employed by the best writers.

"You are very *respectively* welcome, sir,

TIMON OF ATHENS.

"I'm bound to pledge it *respectively*."

JONSON'S "Every man out of his humour."

35. *Eminent danger* for *imminent danger*.

36. *Cotched* for *caught*. "I *catch* cold" is a common expression both in London and in this state. "*Cotch*" arises from their infinitive being "*ketch*" as *fetch* is their preterite from *felch*.

37. *Gone dead* and *went dead* are common Londonisms; the word *gone* has, however, had a similar application for a long time.

"He is *gone* happy and has left me rich."

TIMON OF ATHENS.

We say also, *gone* blind.

38. *Pottecarry*. This word is sometimes also pronounced *pottercarrier*. At a

meeting of the worshipful society of apothecaries of London, a cockney toastmaster, in repeating the toast, gave—success to the worshipful society of *pottercarriers*. *Pottecarry* is not merely a Londonism: it extends throughout England, with slight modifications: in Yorkshire and the other northern counties it is *Potticar* and also *pothechary*. This spelling is probably nearer the original than apothecary. Chaucer wrote the word *potecary* which probably came from the Greek through the Romanic languages—*Boticario* being an apothecary in Spanish. In Scotland he is called a *Pottingar*.

"For harms of body, hands or heid,

"The *Pottingas* will purge the pains."

39. *Perwent* for *prevent* by metathesis, like *waps* for *wasps*, *thurst* for *thrust*, &c.

40. *Skrimidge* for *skirmish*: the termination *idge* is a favorite with the cockney, hence *radiges* for *radishes*, *rubbidge* for *rubbish*, &c.

41. *Scrowdge* for *crowd*, this is not confined to London. *Scrudge* is common in the north of England.

42. *Squeedge* to *squeeze* like *scrowdge*.

43. *Conquest* for *concourse*.

44. *Mislest* for *molest*.

45. *Colloguing* for *colleaguings*, common over England and in Scotland.

"But it was hardly possible two such rascals should *collogue* together without mischief to honest people."—RON ROY.

46. *Unbethought* for *recollected*. This word, as Mr. Pegge has properly remarked, does not convey the meaning intended, *Unbethought* evidently meaning *forgot*. He suggests that it may have been originally *onbethought*, by a close pronunciation corrupted to *unbethought*.

47. *Stagnated* for *staggered*.

48. *Solentary*. Solitary.

49. *Contra'ry*. The cockney universally places the accent on the second syllable of the word *contrary*, and it was probably pronounced so formerly,

"And with *contra'ry* blasts proclaims most deeds."—MILTON.

50. *Chara'cter* is similarly accented by some of the poets.

"Are visibly *chara'cter'd*, and engrav'd"

SHAKESPEARE.

51. *Throw'd* for *throuen*. The propensity of the cockney as of every careless and uneducated speaker is to make all ir-

regular verbs regular. Hence we have *blow'd, know'd, throw'd, draw'd, grow'd, see'd, &c.* for *blew, knew, threw, drew, grew, saw, &c.*

52. *Insinuations* for *insinuations*.

53. *Luxurious* for *luxuriant*. This is the more antient word. Minshew has no other.

54. "*I'm blow'd.*" A favorite and unmeaning oath of the Londoner. "*I'm blow'd if he ha'n't cut his stick.*" (cant term for "*died.*")

55. *Moral* for *model*. "The *moral* of a man." Common also in the north of England.

56. *Jocotious*, sometimes *jecotious* for *jocose*.

57. *Remember* "to remind." The cockney has here retained the word in all old signification.

"I must remember you my lord."

SHAKESPEARE.

"The Queen wrote a letter to the king remembering him of his promise."

BISHOP BURNET.

58. *Fit* preterite from *fight*; perhaps from analogy with *lit* from *light*. *Fit* is common in many counties in England.

59. *Licked* for *chastised*. This and the substantive *licking* for beating is common over the whole of England as well as in this country. It prevails also, over Scotland, as well as *lick*, a blow, which is common over the whole of the United States.

"When he committed all these tricks,

"For which he well deserv'd his licks."

FORBES.

Jameison derives it from the Suio-Gothic *laegg-a* to strike.

60. *Afore* for *before*. Good old English.

61. *Vonst, once*, and *twyst* for twice are by no means unusual mispronunciations here.

62. *That e're is this e're. That there is this here.* Common colloquial vulgarisms, wherever the English language is spoken.

63. *Shall us, &c.* for *shall we*. A decided breach of grammar, but confined to the honest Londoner. Shakspeare has committed the same error.

"Where shall us lay him."

CYMBELINE.

"Shall us attend you."

WINTERS' TALK.

The violations of grammar, with regard to the personal pronouns, are numerous and

flagrant. "*Betwixt you and I,*" is an every day expression.

64. "*Never knowed'd no wheres.*" An instance of redundant negatives common wherever the English language is spoken, because formerly considered correct, but chiefly in the south of England. In Kent, the traveller would be exposed frequently to similar expressions as the following: "*has nobody seen never a nothing of never a hat no wheres?*" "*No I shall not do no such thing, not by no means.*" This is not worse, however than the proclamation of King Henry V. for the apprehension of Sir John Oldcastle. "*Be it knowne, as Sire John Oldcastle refuse, nor will not receive, nor sue to have none of the graces,*" &c. The double negative was, indeed, at one time universally employed.

65. *Most learnedst bodies* as is. The redundant superlative was equally common of old. In the version of the Bible we have *most Highest, most straitest*. Sir Thomas More, Ben Jonson, John Lilly, Shakspeare and others furnish innumerable examples.

"But that I love thee best,

"O most best believe it."—HAMLET.

In London this figure of speech is universally prevalent.

*Porter.* "Coach, Sir! Lord love your soul, the coach has been gone these three quarters of an hour: its the *most regglarest* coach as is and always starts to a minute."

*Passenger.* "You don't say so! Lawks! vot a precious row my wife vill kick up! She's coming arter me as fast as she can toddle!"

66. *If so be as how.* A pleonasm, if answering every purpose.

67. *Ax* for *ask*. This is also genuine old English, though now a provincialism, common over Great Britain. It is the original Saxon form and is used by Chaucer, Ben Jonson, &c.

"The twelve that weren with him *axiden* him to expowne the parable"

WICLIF MARK, iv.

68. *Postesses*. In Derbyshire they still preserve the old plurals, *postès, ghostès, beastès, &c.* which modern refinement has contracted to *posts, ghosts, beasts &c.* whilst the cockneys have made them, *respectfully* as they would say, *postesses, ghostesses, beastesses &c.*

69. *Seed* for *saw*. This has already been noticed. (51)

70. *Mought for might.* The preterite of the old verb *more*, the ancestor of the modern, may; but now obsolete, except amongst cockneys and in some parts of this continent.

71. "*Would not have went.*" This expression, which is not unusual in this country, has likewise the sanction of antiquity. The verb *wend* from Saxon *wendan* to go, is, in fact, still used in the north of England, and *to went* used synonymously with *to go* is common in Scotland.

"Scho parayde he would to the Lord Persye went."—WALLACE.

The truth is, the conjugation of the verb *to go* has had that of the verb *to wend* jumbled with it as is the case with the *fero, tuli* of the Latin language, *go* being from the Anglo-Saxon *gan*, whilst *went* is from Anglo-Saxon *wendan* both signifying "*to go*." Numerous instances might be adduced, of similar expressions to that in the text, from the older and even from the more modern writers.

72. *A'dry.* This pleonasm as well as in *a'hungry*, *a'cold*, &c. is by no means confined to London. It is met with every where. It was formerly very common.

73. *Stupid.* A cant term denoting a mixture of ale and gin, perhaps named from the effects likely to be induced by it.

74. *Fetch a walk, Faught a walk*, are cockneyisms but antient expressions likewise.

"I'll fetch a turn about the garden.

SHAKESPEARE.

If that how you were disposed to fetch a walk this evening, I would have fough't a walk with you — CONGREVE.

The preterit *faught* is confined to a walk; *fetch* "*to bring*" having its preterit *folch*.

75. *Hisself for himself.* This is probably the correct mode of writing the word, as *self*, is manifestly a substantive. It is prevalent in the north of England.

76. *Arter or Arter*, a common transmutation, as the inhabitants of the north of England would term it.

77. *Ingons for Onions.* A common expression in this state, amongst the uneducated.

78. *Taters for potatoes.* Táety, west of England, Tatee, to the north.

The best work we possess on the peculiarities of the dialect of the Londoners is one to which reference has already been

made, entitled, "*Anecdotes of the English language* : chiefly regarding the local dialect of London and its environs." second edition, London 1814 : by Samuel Pegge, Esq. F.S.A. &c. &c. The work is written with a good deal of spirit and humour : but many of the words and expressions, selected by him, are by no means Londonisms, but are prevalent over the major part of Great Britain. A striking instance of this is the *nolus bolus* for *nolens volens* ; this is a common mistake amongst the illiterate whether cockneys or not. "Here the cockney" says Mr. Pegge "being allowedly out of depth, lays hold on the first twig that offers, viz. on such words as come nearest in sound. He hears his apothecary talk of a *bolus* and does not doubt but there may be such a thing as a *nolus* (a stronger dose) in the *Materia Medica*, if the *bolus* does not operate. On the other hand, these words may be supposed to have no real meaning, like *hiccus doctus* or "*hocus pocus* : " though the learned tell us that the latter of them are corruptions of "*hoc est corpus*," and that the illiterate Romish priests, who gabble Latin which they do not understand, instead of "*hoc est corpus meum*" have been taught to say "*hocus pocus meum*." All this we may believe, when we are told, that they call part of the funeral service "*De Profundis*" (the 130th Psalm) by the style and title of "*Deborah Fendish* : " after which we cannot be surprised that an ignorant, imprisoned, cockney pickpocket, should call a "*Habeas Corpus*" a "*hap'oth of copperas*, which, I am told, is the language of Newgate." P. 75.

See p. 237.

72. D.

#### PENITENTIARY DISCIPLINE.\*

"The Cow pox, tractors, galvanism, and gas,

"In turns appear to make the vulgar stare." BROWN.

We have received a pamphlet, by, Dr. Charles Caldwell, entitled "*New views of Penitentiary Discipline and of Moral education and reform*" which strikes us as one of the most singular productions of the day : it is composed in the manner of a review, and, we are informed

\* New views of Penitentiary discipline and moral education and reform. By Ch. Caldwell M.D." Philadelphia 1822, 8vo. pp. 52.

by the author himself, was intended for the pages of the "*American Quarterly*" "but was not submitted to the inspection of the editor, from an apprehension, which was thought well founded, that his prejudices against phrenology, of which he has never manifested any knowledge, would induce him to reject it."

We confess that the following remarks, indulged on the subject of the privileges of editors of journals, struck us with the greatest surprise, especially when it is recollected that they proceed from one who was himself formerly editor of a literary periodical.

If the following observations were generally considered absolute, it would of course be utterly impracticable for any review or journal to give satisfaction either to its contributors or subscribers.

"Certain editors are known to contend, that they are privileged to exclude from their papers and journals all opinions at war with their own, and to which they are, therefore, particularly opposed. 'We must not be expected, say they, to invite an enemy into our houses, nor even to permit him to enter, for the purpose of contending with, insulting, or in any way maltreating us.' This is a miserable illustration and a worse argument, because the two cases are totally dissimilar. His journal is not the editor's castle. It belongs to the public; at least to his subscribers. It is their hotel; and they have a right to enter it uninvited, and receive in it all such fare as they choose to call for. And if it is denied them, they will first complain and then abandon. Such is the law of the land; and those concerned will scarcely, it is believed, be willing to dispense with the execution of it, even in the case of the *American Quarterly*." P. viii.

It is not for us to defend the editor of the *American Quarterly*; his eminent talents and acquirements enable him to plead his own cause. We may merely remark, that the pages of the "*American Quarterly*" afford sufficient evidence, that the editor has not refused articles, which differed from his own in sentiments; with us, indeed, it has been a weighty objection to the work, that it was not distinguished by unity of principle. As one

instance, we may refer to a most unfortunate discrepancy between the opinions expressed on the subject of political economy in two separate articles; and, however much freedom of thought and opinion may be permitted, in miscellanies like our own, where each communication has its appropriate signature, it is not equally admissible in a *Quarterly Review*, which, *primarily*, conveys the idea of unity, although it may be familiar to all that many are engaged in it.

The author of the pamphlet grants, that, "an editor is the trustee and guardian of his journal. He has a right, therefore to reject papers badly composed, treating of subjects foreign from (to) his plan, or containing sentiments likely to prove offensive or injurious to the public." Under this limitation, even, the editor of the "*American Quarterly*" might have been held justified, we think, by the majority of readers in objecting to the production before us.

The essay is, ostensibly a review of "a letter on penal law, and penitentiary discipline," by the Honourable Edward Livingston, addressed to Roberts Vaux, but it is, essentially, an exposition of the principles and advantages of phrenology, of which the author has been so zealous, and so enthusiastic a promulgator; he asserts that "in his belief of the science there is nothing *voluntary*, nothing which he could at *option* choose or refuse; that it has been the result of *all controlling necessity*; and he adds: "it was forced on us by evidence which we could not resist and did not therefore reject. *On such evidence we would be willing to rest our belief in christianity, including its high and solemn connexions with our present comforts and future hopes (! !)* Although this evidence did not come to us from above, by any immediate act of revelation, we, notwithstanding, accept it as pertaining to the "elder revelation," because we regard it as a response from nature, who is the priestess of heaven, and the oracle of its ordinances, acts and purposes." P. ii.

The sophistry which pervades the essay may be exemplified by the following quotation.

"We assert without perhaps being himself conscious of it, every man of sound observation is instinctively a phrenologist, he judges of the characters and intellects of individuals, at first sight, by the forms and dimensions of their heads. That this is true, as respects striking heads, admits of demonstration. And if it is true of any, it is, to a certain extent, true of all. The idiot head, the ruffian head, and the head of elevated morality and reflexion can be mistaken by no one of common discernment. Even children notice them, and are sensible of their indications. Nor is there the least difficulty in distinguishing and interpreting the heads of midway, intermediate grades. Even of those that more nearly approach each other, in size and figure, the difference, although less obvious, is still perceptible; to the acute and practised observer very palpably so. We venture to assert, that these principles influence man, in many of his most important transactions." P. 46.

Heaven protect us from the scrutinizing observation of such phrenologists, especially if we should unfortunately have a large developement of the malevolent organs with an obscure although nicely balanced condition of the benevolent or antagonizing; so nice, indeed, as to escape their cursory observation; for cursory it almost always is! In the following observations, however, relative to the management of criminal offenders, there is much good sense.

"Convicts, although deeply depraved, are, notwithstanding, men, and should be dealt with on the principles of human nature. Unless for the soundest of reasons, and from motives the most imperative, nothing should be either said or done to them to degrade them farther in their own estimation, or in the opinion of others. Our feelings as men, united to our knowledge of the human character, testify to the correctness of this sentiment and teach us the reason of it. A consciousness of degradation is an incubus on the spirit, repressing all elevation of thought and generosity of desire, and thus extinguishing in the culprit even a wish to reform. Repeat-

ing to him perpetually, in its petrifying accents, that the effort is useless, it render him reckless and teaches him despair. It is for this reason, added to the resentment and hatred it engenders, that, where reform is the object, corporeal punishment is the most hopeless discipline. To secure the confidence and conciliate the attachment of the offenders, should be a leading object with the teachers and governors. But this they can never effect by threatening, vituperative or contemptuous words or the employment of the lash." P. 43.

Then follows some phrenological bombast, and :—

"The swollen bubble bursts, and all is air."

Of phrenology we do not intend, now, to speak: it will afford us occasion for discussion hereafter. We may merely remark here, that, beautiful as is the basis, nothing can be more flimsy than the superstructure, which certain *phrenologists*, as they term themselves, have raised upon it. The discrepancy is not greater or more ridiculous than between the mild, unobtrusive, groundwork of christianity and the extravagant exhibitions of the fanatic. We would not, however, be doing the author justice, were we not to lay before our reader, his *novel* application of phrenological principles to the discipline of penitentiaries, where reform is the object; this is indeed the ostensible object of his pamphlet.

"If the convicts are young, both in years and vice, and the moral reflecting compartments of their brains are even moderately developed, the prospect is promising, that, by judicious treatment, they may be perfectly reclaimed. In youthful offenders, possessing what we have denominated the ruffian temperament, the forehead low, the top of the head flat or depressed, the base of the brain, from the temporal region backward, wide, and a large amount of it behind the ear; reformation is always difficult and sometimes, we apprehend, impracticable.—Even when young, individuals of this description should be subjected to a long, circumspect and energetic course of discipline. The utmost force of education should be tried to strengthen the moral and reflecting organs, while they are yet mutable and give

them an ascendancy over the animal. In no other ways can beings thus organized ever be reclaimed. But if they be advanced both in years and crime, the case is hopeless. All attempts at their reformation, however praise-worthy in motive, might be pronounced the offspring of folly. Utterly unavailing they must certainly prove. In such instances, capital punishment, or imprisonment during life is the only measure by which society can be protected from the repetition of their crimes!" 32.

After all, there is, really, much good sense scattered here and there through the pamphlet, and many passages which exhibit no little eloquence. Generally, however, the style is too turgid and there is too great a desire manifested, to use words and expressions, that are now nearly, if not wholly, obsolete; and, what is a less venial offence, to coin new words unnecessarily; to the former class belong "rarely talented;" "consociated;" "malefaction;" "lapse of water" &c. and amongst the neologisms; the words, "inhumanizing," "crowdedness," "transcendentalism," "ruffianism," &c.

*R.D.S.*

#### EASTERN SHORE OF VIRGINIA.

Having promised that we would occasionally present our readers with local descriptions and details of what was most worthy of notice in our country, we lay before them a letter from a correspondent, concerning an interesting portion of this state, from the greater part of which it is separated not more by geographical position than by other peculiarities. We take this occasion of expressing the hope that the example of our correspondent from Northampton will be followed, and that we shall be favoured with an account of what is most remarkable in our country. Statistical details concerning the principal sources of our wealth would be particularly acceptable. The subjects to which we would most invite inquiry are, as follows.

**Iron.** The number of furnaces and forges in the state; the counties in which they are situated; the quantity of iron made at each in a year; the number of

labourers employed; the number of slaves; the price of iron at the furnace.

**Salt.** The number of works in the state; the quantity of salt made; its price at the works; the number of labourers employed.

**Lead.** The number of labourers employed; the quantity, and price.

**Coal.** The quantity drawn from the pits; the number of labourers; the price at the pits.

**Tobacco.** A comparison of the average quantity made an hundred years since, fifty years since, and the present time, and the number and places of inspection, at these different periods.

**Cotton.** The number of bales received at Richmond and Petersburg respectively for the last five years.

**Tar and other naval stores.** The number of barrels inspected now and at former distant periods; the price.

**Ginseng.** The quantity sent to market now, and at other times; with the prices; the manner of procuring and preparing the root described.

**Fisheries.** The number on the Potomac, Rappahanock and James River respectively, with the computed number of barrels of shad and herring caught on each river.

**Shingles.** The number prepared for market in the dismal swamp and its vicinity, with the prices.

**Bacon.** The quantity prepared for market, in the Isle of Wight, Southampton &c.

**Grazing.** Some account of the extent of this branch of industry in the north west part of the state.

**Ship-building.** The extent of this branch of industry in Mathews county.

It is not to be presumed that any individual will be able to answer scarce any one of these inquiries, as to the wholestate, but many will be able to give accurate answers to them for a single county, or other larger district, and such an interchange of satistical information cannot but be interesting to our patriotisim and stimulating to our industry. We will now return to our correspondent who thus writes:—

Messrs. Editors,

The county of Northampton, as you know, is the southern extremity of the long low peninsula, which forms the eastern side of the

Chesapeake, and which comprehends eight counties in Maryland, and two in Virginia. Separated as these counties are from the rest of the state, by the spacious bay, which the eye can scarcely see across, and being among the first settled parts of the colony, they are a more unmixed people than is often to be found in our country, and retain more of the usages, and even language, of former times than perhaps any part of the state. The antient hospitality of Virginia is here found unimpaired; and the inhabitants have a high relish for good living, which they are also enabled to indulge by a soil and climate extremely favorable to gardening, and by an abundance of excellent fish, oysters and crabs. They have great neatness in their houses and persons, which I have always observed to be a characteristic of persons living in a sandy country. The whole county is as level as a bowling-green, and the roads are good at all seasons of the year. This circumstance has probably increased the social character and habits of the people, as it certainly has their pleasure carriages. I was assured by a commissioner of the revenue that the number of the gigs in the county is near three hundred, which is considerably greater than that of the freeholders. I saw about a hundred, at a monthly court, and most of them were made in Philadelphia, and were very handsome. It is computed that the county pays about ten thousand dollars a year for its carriages.

The soil of this county is thin, light and always more or less mixed with sand, but as it commonly rests on a stiff clay, and the land is too level to be carried off by the rains, or "to wash," as we of the upper country say, the inhabitants are very much encouraged to pursue a meliorating course of husbandry, yet in truth they are but indifferent farmers. They cultivate the same land incessantly—one year in Indian corn, and the next in oats (their two principal crops;) and they assured me that their lands improved under this severe process, provided they were not also *pastured*. Whenever a field is not in cultivation, it puts up every where a rich luxuriant crop of a sort of wild vetch, called the magoty-bay bean, which shades the land while it is growing, and, returns to it a rich coat of vegetable manure. It is to this fertilizing plant, and the aliment which is plentifully furnished by the vapours from the

sea, that the product of those lands is so much greater than a stranger would be led to expect from the appearance of the soil. Their land is so easily cultivated, that there are few parts of the state in which more is produced to the man or the horse, though more may be produced to the acre. On their best farms, they often get an hundred barrels to the hand.

The fig and the pomegranate grow here, without protection during the winter. The former attains the size of a stout tree, sometimes twenty feet high, and its delicious fruit is in greater abundance than the inhabitants can consume—they not having learnt the art of curing it, or perhaps the species they have is not suited to that operation.

Wind mills are in use here, but tide mills, at the mouths of small inlets, are preferred, when attainable. I saw one small grist mill turned by water from a pond. These inlets deeply indent the shore both on the "bay, and the sea side," and while they are convenient for fishing, shooting wild fowl, and as harbours for their boats and small craft, they make a pleasing variety to their landscapes, which are indeed as pretty as is compatible with so unvarying a surface. Upon the whole I know of no part of the state in which the comforts of life are enjoyed in greater number or perfection. They have too the sea and land breezes of the West Indies, which temper the sultry heats of summer; and their only annoyances seem to be a few musketoes, a good many gnats, and now and then a bilious, or an intermittent, fever. I found here a new article of culture. It is the palma chrysti, called by them, castor bean. It now constitutes a part of almost every farmer's crop, to the extent of eight or ten acres or more. The quantity of the nut or bean produced is the same as the land would produce in corn. Each bushel yields about two gallons and a half of oil and sells, at the press, for one dollar and twenty cents a bushel. This plant is now cultivated in many of the counties on the western shore, and the oil it affords has become a considerable article of export, it being preferred to that of the West Indies.

Among the curiosities of this county are the antient records of the county, from 1640, which I regretted I had not more time to inspect, and a marble tomb or sarcophagus, about five feet high, and as many

long, from which I transcribed the following singular inscription.

Under this marble tomb lies the body  
of the Honourable John Custis Esq.  
of the city of Williamsburg  
and Parish of Bruton.

Formerly of Hungar's Parish on the Eastern  
shore

of Virginia and county of Northampton  
aged 71 years and yet lived but seven years  
which was the space of time he kept  
a bachelor's home at Arlington  
on the eastern shore of Virginia."

On the opposite side one reads :

"This inscription put on this tomb  
Was by his own positive order."

"Wm. Cosley Mann in Fenchurch Street, London, fecit."

The writer was so intent on perpetuating the memory of his domestic troubles that he has not mentioned the time of his birth, nor did those who came after him supply the omission, or state the time of his death ; but it probably occurred early in the last century. But my paper warns me to conclude, and to subscribe myself,

A CORRESPONDENT.

Northampton, Aug. 15. 1829.

#### INFLUENCE OF SOIL ON THE VINE.

Mr. Henry E. Dwight, in an interesting work, recently published which is extremely worthy of perusal,\* has afforded an additional fact, to the many already known, of the extraordinary influence of soil on the produce of the vine—an influence which is generally not sufficiently regarded when we judge of the wine-making capabilities of different regions: speaking of the Rheingau—a tract of land of about fifteen miles in length by five or six in breadth, lying on the right bank of the Rhine, he remarks :—

"The region produces the finest wine, and the land bears a higher price than any other on this stream, some of it selling for ten thousand francs per acre. Within this small tract between forty and fifty kinds of wine are made. Near Geisenheim, is Jo-

hannesberg, a hill more celebrated than any other in Germany among the students and the epicures of this country. It furnishes a favorite image to their poets, conveying the idea of the *ne plus ultra* of enjoyment in relation to one of the senses. This hill belonged for several years to Marshal Kellerman who received it as a present from Napoleon. At the termination of the war of 1815, it fell into the possession of the Emperor Francis, who gave it to Prince Metternich, as a reward for his diplomatic services. It still belongs to the Prince, who visits his seat every year. This wine sells on the spot for ten francs, almost two dollars per bottle, though not a small part of it is disposed of in presents to this or that ruler, who has embraced the views of this director of the Holy Alliance. The land of this region is valued, not for its fertility but for the peculiar species of grape which it produces, and for its greater or less exposure to the sun. Parts of the same hill will sell for fifteen or eighteen hundred dollars the acre, while the remainder will bring but one or two hundred, the wine which it yields being so much inferior. The soil changes so suddenly that often in the distance of fifty feet, the land increases in value more than tenfold." P. 15.

The fact is, that if the vine, which produces the celebrated *Hochheimer* or *Hoch* wine in the small district of Hochheim, be transplanted to the banks of the Moselle, it will produce, instead of *Hoch*, *Moselle* wine; on the banks of the Rhine it will afford *Rhenish*; in Portugal, *Bucellas*:—and, if cultivated at the Cape of Good Hope, the product will be the earthy-tasted *Cape*.

#### CAUSES OF ENDEMIC DISEASE.

In confirmation of the difficulties experienced in detecting the causes of endemic disease (see page 33) or discovering the precise shades of locality which occasionally give rise to it, we may remark—that the beautiful and elevated coast of Long Island in the neighbourhood of the Narrows, which enjoys the constant and invigorating sea breeze, was last year so subject to intermittent and remittent fever that hardly a family or member of a family escaped. Yet scarcely a case of intermittent had occurred in that salubrious region for, we be-

\* Travels in the north of Germany, in the years 1825 and 1826, by Henry E. Dwight A.M, New York, 1829. 8vo. pp. 450.



lieve, upwards of forty years. For the production of these adventitious endemics, a combination of local and atmospheric causes must exist, which may not again recur or at all events until after the lapse of a considerable period.

*RD.*

#### PRICES OF PROVISIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

In the year 1425, cows were valued at 3½ dollars each.

In 1434, in a bad season:—Wheat was sold as high as 11½ dollars per quarter. It soon fell, however, to 2½ dollars, which seems to have been, pretty nearly, its medium price. The price of wine, but we know not of what quality, was about forty four cents the gallon. About this time it appears, says Bishop Fleetwood, that a clergyman might be supported with decency for forty five dollars per annum.

In 1444, provisions sold thus: Wheat, per quarter, about one dollar and ninety cents: a fat ox about fourteen dollars; a hog about one dollar and thirty three cents; a goose, 12½ cents and pigeons about fifteen cents per dozen.

In 1449, hay sold at one dollar and fifty six cents per load; a swan, one dollar thirty three cents; a goose, 12½ cents; three thousand red herrings, about fourteen dollars.

In 1466, the salary of Thomas Littleton, judge of the King's bench, amounted to about six hundred dollars; besides about seventy seven dollars for his fur-gown, robes &c.

In 1494, wheat sold in London at the low price of one dollar and thirty three cents the quarter, and lastly;

In 1495, hay was sold at two dollars and a quarter the load, on account of a severe drought.

*RD.*

#### STYLE AND ACCURACY OF DARBY'S UNITED STATES!

The reader is, by this time, aware of the many inaccuracies contained in the Review of "Darby's United States" in the *American Quarterly*. The correctness of Mr. Darby himself will be appreciated by taking an extract or two from his description of our own state. These

will likewise afford specimens of his style. Speaking of the products of Virginia, he remarks:—

"With the exception of the south eastern counties, grain and orchard fruits are highly congenial to Virginia, and the various products of the latter [i. e. we presume of orchard fruits] are the natural, actual, and, we may safely say, the permanent staples of the state. Of metals, iron ore is abundant in the central and western sections. Salt water has been procured on the Great Kenhawa, and that indispensable article [i. e. salt water] extensively manufactured." P. 616.

His account of Charlottesville, or as he has it: "Charlotteville," affords a specimen of his accuracy.

"Charlottesville, seat of justice of Albemarle county, Virginia, seated on the Rivanna River 86 miles north-west from Richmond, at N. Lat. 38°. 03' and 1°, 28' W. has become a place of great interest from the location there, in 1825, [in 1819] of the University of Virginia. It is also a place of considerable commercial importance."

Mr. Darby, we trust, had a better knowledge of other states than he has exhibited of ours: in a work on such a subject, however, we are apt to form a judgment of the whole by a part.

*RD.*

#### SONNET.

And shall a life of drooping sloth be mine,  
Because a woman's smiles are not for me?  
Like a wreck'd vessel toss'd upon the sea,  
Without a helm or steersman to incline  
Her course, by the directing stars that shine.  
Shall all my soaring aspirations be  
Laid in the dust? and, that which should be free,  
My soul, enthrall'd,—a tribute at the shrine  
Of scornful beauty: shall my tears still flow  
In ceaseless streams, at thought of things gone  
by,  
Until the flush of rage, shame's crimson glow  
Displace them? No! 'twere better far to die  
The death eternal, past the reach of woe  
Than thus, as I do, live ingloriously.

D.C.T.

#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

Course of instruction &c. in this University.—  
The regulations of this University regarding in-

struction as well as discipline are, in some respects, singular; they were adopted, in the first instance, after serious and competent deliberation and have been strengthened by subsequent experience. These peculiarities we shall from time to time, lay before the reader. At present we propose to refer to the course of study in the various schools, in order that they, who are particularly interested in this subject at the commencement of a session, may derive every necessary information. We may premise, that every student is permitted to enter the schools of his choice; but, if he be under the age of twenty one years, he is required to attend at least three Professors or two Professors and the Demonstrator of Anatomy and Surgery, unless, when he matriculates, his parent or guardian shall have prescribed, in writing, the schools which he is required to attend, or unless the Faculty, for good cause shewn, shall allow him to attend less than three: and, that each student is allowed to graduate, on exhibiting the necessary qualifications, in any one of the schools: the title being simply "graduate of the particular school, except in that of Medicine where the degree of M.D. is conferred.

The following is a list of those who have already graduated in the various departments.

#### GRADUATES IN 1823.

##### *In Greek.*

Gessner Harrison, of Rockingham County.  
Henry Tutwiler of do do  
Robert M. T. Hunter of Essex.

##### *In Mathematics.*

Henry Tutwiler of Rockingham.  
J. A. Gretter of Richmond City.  
Albert L. Holladay of Spottsylvania.  
Robert M. T. Hunter, Essex.

##### *In Chemistry.*

Henry Clagett of Loudon.

*In Medicine*, were admitted to the degree of "doctor."

Gessner Harrison, Rockingham.  
Thos. J. White, Franklin County, Kentucky, now of Florida.  
George W. McCulloch, Albemarle.

#### GRADUATES IN 1820.

##### *In Latin.*

Richard Parker of Norfolk Va.

##### *In Greek.*

George Hay Lee of Winchester Va.  
Richard Parker of Norfolk.  
Alexander Moseley, Buckingham.

##### *In Chemistry.*

Robert M. Saunders of Henrico.

##### *In Moral Philosophy.*

Henry Tutwiler of Rockingham.

John D. Munford Richmond City.

##### *In Political Economy.*

Henry Tutwiler of Rockingham.

*In Medicine* were admitted to the degree of "Doctor."

Lilburn P. Perry, Albemarle.  
Tyree Rodes do  
William H. Newsom, Tennessee.  
George Wood, Albemarle.

*In Law*, were declared graduates,

Charles L. Mosby, Powhatan.

Nathaniel Wolfe, Charlottesville.

In the next number we shall give the course of instruction pursued in the School of Antient Languages.

*Diploma.*—A Diploma is in course of preparation for the graduates in the various departments of the University. Due notice will be given to those who have entitled themselves to it, when, it is ready for delivery.

*Expenses of this University.*—Very erroneous opinions have been entertained regarding the expenses of this University. The advertisement of the Proctor estimates them at not more than two hundred and eighteen dollars for a session of upwards of ten months. On this advertisement, the "New England Galaxy"—a Boston paper of considerable merit; has the following remarks:—

"The last number of the Virginia Literary Museum gives the following statement of the expenses of a student at that University. Education is certainly cheap enough there, and we have no reason to doubt that the institution possesses the means of giving various and thorough instruction."

Authors and Publishers, desirous of having works noticed in the Museum, must transmit them free of expense, to the Editors at the University.

#### MARRIED

On the 2d inst. Wm. WERTENBAKER, Esq., assistant Proctor and Librarian of this University, to Miss LOUISIANA, daughter of LEWIS TIMBERLAKE.

PUBLISHED BY F. CARE.

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# VIRGINIA LITERARY MUSEUM

AND

JOURNAL OF BELLES LETTRES, ARTS, &c.

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"POSCENTES VARIO MULTUM DIVERSA PALATO."—*Hof. Lib. ii. Ep. 2.*

No. 15.—VOL. I. UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA. SEPT. 23, 1829.

## ORIGINAL DRAUGHT OF THE CONSTITUTION OF VIRGINIA.

We take great pleasure in laying before our readers a copy of the original draught of our present constitution, not only because every thing connected with the history of that instrument is peculiarly interesting at this moment, but also because the printed report of the constitution from which the subjoined draught is taken, is, perhaps, the only copy extant. The report is dated June 24, 1776. It will be perceived to differ from the constitution, actually adopted, in many important particulars; some of which it may not be amiss to notice: thus,

In the first article there is no exception to the separation of the three great departments of the government, in favor of the county court magistrates, as in the present constitution.

By the third, the two houses of Assembly are styled the "Upper" and the "Lower House," instead of the Senate and House of Delegates. No one was eligible "to the Lower House," who was not *twenty four* years of age, and who had not a landed estate of at least *one thousand pounds*.

By the fourth, the members of the "Upper House" are elected not immediately by the people, but by the intervention of "deputies, or sub-electors," of which each county was to choose twelve, having, a landed estate of *five hundred pounds*. The members of the Upper House so chosen, are required to possess a landed estate of *two thousand pounds*, and to be *twenty eight* years of age.

By the fifth, the right of suffrage was extended to *leaseholders*, having an unexpired term of seven years; and to *housekeepers*

who had resided one year in the county, and had been the *father of three children in the county*.

By the eighth, *three* members of the Privy Council are sufficient to act, and the Governor is made the President of the Council.

By the ninth, the appointment of the Militia officers is given to the Executive, without requiring the *recommendation of the county courts*.

By the tenth, The *Attorney General* and *Treasurer* are made eligible to the General Assembly, and *ministers of the gospel* are not mentioned among the persons excluded.

By the eleventh, the appointment of the *Justices of the Peace* is given to the Executive, without requiring the *recommendation of the county courts*.

It thus appears that the Constitution, as reported by the committee, was free from three of the objections which have been most frequently and vehemently urged against that instrument, in its present form: we mean, the very narrow restriction of the right of suffrage; the union of Legislative, Executive and Judiciary powers in the county courts; and the utter insignificance of the Governor, in the decisions of the Executive. This interesting document is as follows:

### A PLAN OF GOVERNMENT

*Laid before the Committee of the House which they have ordered to be printed for the perusal of the members.*

1. Let the legislative, executive and judicative departments be separate and distinct, so that neither exercise the powers properly belonging to the other.

2. Let the legislative be formed of two distinct branches, who together, shall be a

complete legislature. They shall meet once or oftener, every year, and shall be called the GENERAL ASSEMBLY of VIRGINIA.

3. Let one of these be called the Lower House of Assembly, and consist of two delegates or representatives chosen for each county, annually, of such men as have resided in the same, for one year last past; are freeholders of the county; possess an estate of inheritance of land, in Virginia, of at least one thousand pounds value, and are upwards of twenty four years of age.

4. Let the other be called the Upper House of Assembly, and consist of twenty four members, for whose election, let the different counties be divided into twenty four districts, and each county of the respective district, at the time of the election of its delegates for the Lower House, choose twelve deputies, or sub-electors being freeholders residing therein, and having an estate of inheritance of lands within the district of at least five hundred pounds value. In the case of dispute, the qualifications to be determined by the majority of the said deputies. Let these deputies choose, by ballot, one member for the Upper House of Assembly, who is a freeholder of the district, hath been a resident therein for one year last past, possesses an estate of inheritance of land in Virginia, of at least two thousand pounds value, and is upwards of twenty eight years of age. To keep up this Assembly, by rotation, let the districts be equally divided into four classes, and numbered, at the end of one year after the general election; let the six members elected by the first division be displaced, rendered ineligible for four years, and the vacancies be supplied in the manner aforesaid. Let this rotation be applied to each division according to its number, and continued in due order annually.

5. Let each House settle its own rules of proceeding, direct writs of election for supplying intermediate vacancies; and let the right of suffrage, both in the election of members for the Lower House, and of deputies for the districts, be extended to those having leases for land, in which there is an unexpired term of seven years, and to every housekeeper who hath resided for one year last past in the county, and hath been the father of three children in his county.

6. Let every law originate in the Lower House, to be approved or rejected by the Upper House, or to be amended with the consent of the Lower House, except money bills, which in no instance shall be altered by the Upper House, but wholly approved or rejected.

7. Let the governor or chief magistrate be chosen annually by joint ballot of both Houses; who shall not continue in that office longer than three years successively, and then be ineligible for the next three years. Let an adequate, but moderate salary, be settled on him during his continuance in office; and let him with the advice of a council of state, exercise the executive powers of government, and the power of proroguing or adjourning the General Assembly, or of calling it upon emergencies, and of granting reprieves or pardons, except in cases where the prosecution shall have been carried on by the Lower House of Assembly.

8. Let a privy council or council of state, consisting of eight members, be chosen by joint ballot of both Houses of Assembly promiscuously from their own members, or the people at large, to assist in the administration of government. Let the members be sufficient to act, and their advice be entered of record in their proceedings. Let them appoint their own clerk, who shall have a salary settled by law, and take an oath of secrecy in such matters, as he shall be directed by the board to conceal, unless called upon by the lower house of Assembly for information. Let a sum of money appropriated to that purpose, be divided annually among the members, in proportion to their attendance; and let them be incapable, during their continuance in office, of sitting in either house of assembly. Let two members be removed, by ballot of their own board, at the end of every three years, and be ineligible for the three next years. Let this be regularly continued, by rotation so as that no member be removed before he hath been three years in the council; and let these vacancies, as well as those occasioned by death or incapacity, be supplied by new elections, in the same manner as at the first.

9. Let the governor, with the advice of the privy council, have the appointment of the militia officers, and the government of the militia, under the laws of the country.

10. Let the two houses of Assembly, by

joint ballot, appoint judges of the supreme court, judges in chancery, judges of admiralty, and the attorney general, to be commissioned by the governour, and continue in office during good behaviour. In case of death or incapacity, let the governour, with the advice of the privy council, appoint persons to succeed in office *pro tempore*, to be approved or displaced by both houses. Let these officers have fixed and adequate salaries, and be incapable of having a seat in either house of assembly, or in the privy council, except the attorney general and the treasurer, who may be permitted to a seat in the lower house of assembly.

11. Let the governour, and privy council, appoint justices of the peace for the counties. Let the clerks of all the courts, the sheriffs, and the coroners, be nominated by the respective courts, approved by the governour and privy council, and commissioned by the governour. Let the clerks be continued during good behaviour, and all fees be regulated by law. Let the justices appoint constables.

12. Let the governour, any of the privy counsellors, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of government, for mal-administration, or corruption, be prosecuted by the Lower House of Assembly (to be carried on by the attorney general, or such other person as the house may appoint) in the supreme court of common law. If found guilty, let him, or them, be either removed from office, or for ever disabled to hold any office under the government, or subjected to such pains or penalties as the laws shall direct.

13. Let all commissions run in the name of the *Commonwealth of Virginia*, and be tested by the governour with the seal of the commonwealth annexed. Let writs run in the same manner, and be tested by the clerks of the several courts. Let indictments conclude; *against the peace and dignity of the commonwealth*.

14. Let a treasurer be appointed annually, by joint ballot of both houses.

15. In order to introduce this government, let the representatives of the people, now met in convention, choose twenty four members to be an Upper House; and let both houses, by joint ballot choose a governour and privy council; the Upper House to continue until the last day of March next, and the other officers until the end

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of the succeeding session of Assembly. In case of vacancies, the president to issue writs for new elections.

### HARPER'S FERRY.

"Heights which appear like lovers that have parted."  
BYRON.

The Shenandoah, after running along the foot of the Blue Ridge in a direction nearly north-east, turns suddenly to the east, and mingles its waters with those of the Potomac, at the point where the latter, after flowing through a deep and well wooded dell, from north-west to south-east, is entering that singular gap in the Ridge, through which the waters escape. The valleys of both rivers are romantic, and that of the Potomac unites singularity with beauty.

We are accustomed to find valleys running parallel to mountain chains and separating ridge from ridge; the whole of the great valley, which lies between the North Mountain and the Blue Ridge, and which is called in this part of the country "the valley" *par excellence*, presents an alternation of such parallel, low lands and intervening heights; the Shenandoah occupying one of the former. But the valley of the Potomac is not of this class, it intersects at right angles the great mountain ranges and the system of smaller elevations which are subordinate to them; and the river is thus distinguished from the more numerous class of streams, which occupy the bottoms of ordinary valleys. The Potomac is not, however, a solitary example of this kind, on the contrary, most of our great Atlantic rivers penetrate the mountains by extensive lateral valleys, or are said, with some degree of impropriety, to *break* through the mountains at right angles to their direction. These profound passes are not uncommon in other parts of the world, and present several varieties. A deep ravine, in which the rocks, presenting unequal resistance, have separated unequally, and where the stream, which rushes through this accidental outlet, leaps from rock to rock, and is alternately seen foaming in the cataract or lost in the narrow and gloomy gulf below: in short, where the waters are not to be regarded as flowing over a bed, but rather as penetrating through crevices, which earthquakes have

broken in the immense wall that confined them. Such is the appearance, which theory would assign to these transverse valleys and their streams; but such is not the valley of the Potomac. As seen from Harper's Ferry it presents a bed of nearly uniform declivity and width, corresponding in these respects with that of the Shenandoah, a valley, as I have before observed, of a different class. The channels of both rivers are of rock, much broken, but presenting on the whole a regular declivity, and passing in highly inclined strata across the river. The prevailing rocks of the whole neighbourhood being a coarse granite containing unusually large grains of quartz, and a species of slate stone.

The breadth of the Potomac is from two hundred and fifty to three hundred yards; that of the Shenandoah, at the point where it is proposed to erect a bridge, which will supersede the necessity of "Harper's Ferry" is one hundred and fifty yards. Both rivers are shallow, so shallow that the water leaves innumerable necks bare in every part of the channel, whose sides are worn by thousands of petty rapids, which fret and struggle among the large blocks of granite.

The town extends itself in contempt of all order, along both sides of the hill which divides the two rivers, and runs up to the jaws of the picturesque, but in no way tremendous, pass of the Potomac. At the point of this tongue of land is the armory; on the left, and nearly even with the water, the working part of the arsenal; on the right, and over hanging the western bank of the Shenandoah, is Jefferson's Rock, a cliff of little size and only remarkable for its name.

On the opposite banks of the two rivers the cliffs are more bold and striking. That, on the Maryland side, is supposed to resemble the profile of Washington, an illusion very pleasing to those whose minds are not adapted to relish the beauties of nature. The two cliffs, of which we have spoken, form a noble entrance to the romantic valley which lies beyond, embosomed among woods and mountains and winding among the projections of the latter until its exit is again guarded by immense rocks, where a passage, corresponding to that at Harper's Ferry, is broken through the Short Hills—a chain parallel to the Blue Ridge, and connected with it by

spurs which inclose on every side this dell that contains so many elements of the picturesque. The mountains, of considerable height, are clothed to their summit by forests of oak and pine, from out the thick shade of which, project immense masses of granite, that yet stand the stern witnesses of some tremendous convulsion, the traces of which not even time, that has for thousands of years been scattering their *debris* daily below, has been able to obliterate. The base of these mountains presents elevated and very rugged cliffs, which, projecting into the valley, break its uniformity, and give a wilder aspect to the river, that spreads itself between them.

A greater abundance of water would convert this valley into a singularly wild and beautiful lake, a mirror worthy of the noble objects it would reflect. But the character of the Potomac is the same here as before its waters are united with those of the Shenandoah. A channel, too extended for the stream, presents every where its rugged bed, interspersed with thousands of rills and small pools of water. Yet has this deficient stream, a sublimity of its own; the rugged bed is in unison with the rocks which overhang it, and with the dark and often blasted pines, which clothe them; and if, in awful grandeur, it cannot be compared with the passage of the Rhone through the Alps, or in beauty, with some of the smaller lakes, so abundant in the northern states of our own country, it is yet a most highly impressive scene. Commanding interest from the praise of one whose praise was celebrity, Harper's Ferry seems often to have disappointed foreigners who expected to find a scene as *unique* as the Natural Bridge, and as sublime as the falls of Niagara.

Those who form such extravagant expectations will not have them realised, but the rational admirers of nature will find abundance to admire in the beauty, the grandeur, and the simplicity of the spot.

This subject gives me occasion to regret, that the many commanding positions, which our mountains present, should be so little known. The western part of Virginia abounds in romantic scenery, but the traveller may toil for hours in its immediate vicinity, plunged in a depth of shade, that excludes all idea of the beauty by

which he is surrounded ; to ascend the mountains is difficult, and adds but little to his chance of gratification ; the foliage is nearly as thick there as at their base ; but the necessary local knowledge would be at the command of all, if those, who annually make summer excursions through our country, were as ardent admirers of nature as they commonly are of warm springs or other spots, which draw together a number of half sick, half idle, people, who lounge away the best part of the year amid indifferent company and bad accommodations. As an instance, which happens to occur near home,—how many Dr. Syntaxes in search of the picturesque, of the company at the springs, or the wonders of Weyers Cave, pass our own immediate vicinity, and plunge in the interminable shades of Brown's Gap, which brings so forcibly to mind the falsehood of Thomson's lines.

I care not fortune what you me deny,

You cannot bar me from fair nature's grace,

You cannot shut the windows of the sky

Through which Aurora shows her smiling face.

How many unhappy wights perform this darksome pilgrimage, when they might, a few miles off, from Turk's Gap, have seen the sun rise over a landscape, which exhibits the country, towards tide water, spreading out in an extent of forest as boundless and level as the ocean, to the north and south the long chain of the Blue Ridge, to the West the well cultivated valley watered by the Shenandoah, adorned by detached and picturesque mountains, and bounded by the hazy and unbroken line of the North Mountain.

To return to Harper's Ferry. The exit of the river at the Short Hills on the Maryland side is called the point of rocks ; it is here that two rival companies are contending for the exclusive right to possess a narrow gorge which will apparently give passage at once to a river, a canal, and a rail road. Should either the road or the canal succeed, Harpers Ferry will increase in importance ; already a handsome wooden bridge, seven hundred and fifty feet from one abutment to the other, and with a space between the piers of more than one hundred and eighty feet, connects the town with the Maryland shore ; whilst the funds for a similar structure over the Shenandoah have already been subscribed. The former bridge is simple and displays the

skill of the engineer ; it is sustained by arches formed of three tiers of planks placed edgewise, and whose joints give shift to each other ; king posts, fanning from the centre, unite these planks and sustain a roof, which, by its diagonal framing, serves to give stability in a lateral direction. The bridge is double. Did not the name of the engineer, by whom this structure was erected, gives sufficient guarantee for its excellence the observer might fear that economy had been too much consulted in the materials.

The national arsenal at Harper's Ferry is an object worthy of attention. Eighty or ninety thousand stand of arms are usually kept there, and as these are sent off to other depositaries their place is supplied from the extensive manufactory adjacent. It is interesting to observe the facility with which a weapon, so complicated as the musket, is produced. A bar of iron is forged into a rough tube, the interior of which is formed into a smooth surface by drills turned by the power of water. At first, the barrel, strongly fastened, is moved slowly forward, whilst the drill, a cylindrical rod of iron, terminating in a rectangular bar, ten or twelve inches long, revolves with rapidity, but without progressive motion ; the barrel is surrounded by water, which, though constantly renewed, becomes warm to the touch. The barrel is not made cylindrical by a single drill, a succession is employed, until, in the application of the finer drills, the barrel, only fastened in the middle, is left free to adapt itself to the motion of the drill.

The outside of the barrel is polished by enormous grindstones, turning with great rapidity. These stones are guarded by thick cheeks of wood, to which is fixed a covering, that lessens the danger, should the centrifugal force, arising from so rapid a motion, burst the stone asunder, and project the pieces forward. The barrel, passing through these cheeks, bears against the stone, and is drawn across it with a motion resembling that of a screw.

The stocks are shaped by a machine, the idea of which seems to have been borrowed from an admirable contrivance in the celebrated Block Machinery of Brunel. The writer was struck immediately with the resemblance, and, on inquiry, found that the inventor, Blanchard, had previous-

ly introduced the use of Brunel's machinery in this country.

The reader will readily form a general idea of this machine. Let him imagine two wheels, eight or ten inches in diameter, placed one behind the other, and in the same plane; one of these has a smooth, round edge, the other is furnished with steel cutters, which are parallel to the circumference. Further let him suppose two turning lathes, placed side by side, in the one an iron stock as a guide or pattern, in the other the wooden stock to be turned. Now let him suppose, that, whilst these two stocks are in a rapid rotatory motion, the plain wheel of which we have spoken is made to traverse the whole length of the iron, and is pressed against it by a strong spring; this wheel, it will be remembered, is connected invariably with that which is furnished with cutters: if then the latter be brought in contact with the wooden stock at the moment when the first wheel commences its motion along the pattern, it will perform a similar journey along the wooden stock, and only requires, that it should be kept in a rapid rotatory motion, in order that it may shape, by its cutters, this stock to the form of the iron pattern against which the guiding wheel is pressed. Some contrivance is requisite to provide the rotatory motion, spoken of, in the second wheel; as this wheel moves longitudinally the strap by which it turns, must have a like motion; to effect this it is passed, below, round a large cylinder, in lieu of an ordinary drum wheel, and, being confined above by the sides of the drum over which it passes, shifts itself without difficulty along the cylinder and remains always vertical. This machine will shape a musket stock in about eight seconds.

The limits of a paper will not permit us to describe the operations by which the minute parts of the muskets are completed. The whole gives employment when in full work to about two hundred and fifty men, and at such times fourteen hundred muskets have been finished in a month. The average cost is about eleven dollars for each musket, and a good workman will earn two dollars a day. About a dozen of the workmen are from England, chiefly from the Armory Mills which were worked during the war near Deptford in Kent. The muskets are lighter, and in

this respect preferable to the English; the workmen did not hold the iron, which is chiefly from Massachusetts, in the same esteem. The establishment is governed by a superintendant who receives fourteen hundred dollars a year, and conducted by a master armorer at sixty dollars per month, and four assistants at forty dollars.

I must not quit this part of the subject without mentioning Hall's rifle, which is loaded at the breech, and of which there is a separate manufactory here. The barrel is formed of two portions by being cut asunder a few inches from the breech. And, on touching a trigger, placed before the ordinary one, the lower portion is raised out of the stock by a spring, and may be loaded as a pistol. When pressed down again the parts perfectly coincide, and the movable part of the barrel is retained in its place by a catch.

Much time is undoubtedly saved in loading a rifle by this contrivance, and it may obviously be done with less chance of exposing the rifleman to a hostile aim. But no inventions are more uncertain as to ultimate effect than those in the art of war. The confusion and violence of warfare forbid the employment of any but the simplest weapons; and it may be doubted whether these divided portions—subject to violence, to rust, to the intrusion of foreign substances between the stock and the lower portion—when elevated, will, after much use, coincide with sufficient accuracy to allow the passage of the ball, even though no great accuracy is required for that purpose. An inconvenience does, however, attend the loading of rifles, a weapon of great importance in American warfare, and the expedient we have described seems the most simple and therefore the best which could be devised to remove it.

Z.

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#### THE DELTA OF BLACKWOOD.

The beautiful poetry, under the signature  $\Delta$  in *Blackwood's Magazine*, is the production of D. M. Moir Esq—a surgeon of Musselburgh. This gentleman has recently been presented, by the proprietors of the *Edinburgh Literary Gazette*, with a handsome piece of silver plate, in testimony of their respect for his talents, and of the exertion he has made, to support the periodical literature of Scotland.

—RP



## STATE OF MEDICINE, AMONGST THE MONKS OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

At the introduction of Philosophy into Europe, by the Saracens, the Clergy almost exclusively studied, and practised, the medical art, for science it could not then be called. Even as early as the sixth century, the monks of the west were the sole practitioners in medicine, which they followed as a work of piety and charity and as a duty attached to their divine calling. Under the influence, however, of ignorance, of prejudice and their aversion towards reflection and every profane acquirement, they neglected the study of the science, and employed none of the ordinary remedies, but had recourse, merely, to prayer, to the relics of martyrs, holy water and other ceremonies of the Romish Church. They were, consequently, unworthy the name of physicians and, as Sprengel has remarked, ought rather to be esteemed pious and fanatical nurses.

But, during the seventh and eighth centuries of the christian era, there were, amongst the monks of the west, a few traditionary remains of the science, which had originated in the east. Some missionaries, sent to England by Pope Gregory I, founded colleges there, whence Germany, several times, obtained professors. Bede refers to different English ecclesiastics, who were distinguished for their knowledge, especially to Theodore, archbishop of Canterbury, and to Colomb and Erigenes. Theodore seems to have, himself, given practical instructions to the monks, who exercised medicine: for it is related, amongst other things, that he forbade bleeding during the first quarter of the moon (*Beda lib. 5.*) Tobias, bishop of Rosa, was acquainted with the Greek language and also practised the healing art. The schools, established by these ecclesiastics, were much frequented by strangers, and, in this manner, chiefly under the reign of Charlemagne, the English lit the first sparks of science in France and Germany. By that distinguished potentate, in

805, medicine was added to the different sciences, required to be taught in the schools of the convents, although the Emperor, himself, held physicians and their advice in but little estimation.

After this time, medicine was taught in the schools of several cathedrals, under the name of *physic*, and it was, perhaps, then that the name *physician* was first applied to the followers of the art. They would not, however, seem to have been deserving of more consideration than was accorded them in the barbarous times in which they lived: and how little this was may be gathered from the laws, promulgated by Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, which were followed till the eleventh century in a great part of the west.

“No physician shall bleed a noble woman or girl, without a relation or domestic being present at the operation, and, in case of contravention of this law, he shall pay a fine of ten cents, *“quia difficilimum non est, ut in tali occasione ludibrium interdum adhaerescat.”* When a physician is called upon to attend a patient or to dress a wound, he must, immediately after having seen the patient, give security, and agree on the price to be paid for his services: but he shall not be allowed to make any charge should the patient die. For the cure of the cataract he shall receive five cents. If a physician shall injure a man of noble extraction, he shall pay a fine of one dollar, and if the patient should die from any operation, the physician shall be handed over to the relations of the deceased, to be treated as to them may seem meet; but should it be a serf whom he has injured or killed, he shall be made to give another to the master: when a physician takes a pupil, he shall receive a fee of twelve cents for his apprenticeship &c. (*Lindembrog, Cod. Leg. antiq. Wisigoth. in Sprengel Arzneigesch.*)

The contempt, in which the ecclesiastical physicians were held, was necessarily offensive to the church, and this was the principal cause why various councils, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, expressly forbade the members of the superior clergy to practise medicine, and declared those excommunicated, who would

not conform to the order. The lower clergy, however, were still permitted to practise medicine, but they were prohibited from performing any surgical operation, and especially from the use of the actual cautery and cutting instruments. These steps were, first of all, taken in the Synod of Rheims, in 1131, and they were afterwards confirmed in the councils of Montpellier, Tours, Paris &c. The same law was again renewed, in more severe terms, in the years 1220, 1247 and 1298. From this frequent repetition of the same ordinance it is evident that it was frequently violated.

Independently of the ecclesiastics of the school of Salernum, now *Salerno*, in Italy, which was a celebrated school of medicine, during the eleventh and twelfth centuries,—the most eminent practitioners of the healing art were Thieddeg, an ecclesiastic of Prague, who had studied medicine at Corbey; he flourished in 1017 and was physician to Boleslas, king of Bohemia,—Hugues, Abbe of Saint Denis, physician to the king of France, in the same century—Didon, Abbé of Sens; Sigould, Abbé of Eperney,—John of Ravenna, Abbé of Dijon; Milon, archbishop of Benevento; Dominico, Abbe of Pescara and Campo, Monk of the convent of Farfa in Italy. These ecclesiastics were distinguished for their reputed cures, from the ninth till the eleventh centuries. In England, however, the fashion with the clergy, of studying and practising the medical art, prevailed a long while after the latter century. In Geoffroy of Monmouth, who wrote in 1128, Eopa, intending to poison Ambrosius, introduces himself as a physician; but, in order to sustain this character with due propriety, he first shaves his head and assumes the habit of a monk.

The prior and convent of St. Swithins at Winchester granted to Thomas of Shaftesbury, clerk, a corrody, consisting of two dishes daily from the prior's kitchen, bread, drink, robes and a competent chamber in the monastery for the term of his life; in consideration of which

the said Thomas paid them fifty marks and was moreover obliged to attend upon them medically—"deservire nobis in arte medicinæ." In the romance of "Sir Guy" which appeared about the end of the thirteenth century a monk heals the wounds of the knight:—

"There was a monke beheld him well

"That could of leach crafte some dell."

John Arundale, afterwards, bishop of Coichester, was captain and first physician to Henry VI, in 1458. King John, whilst sick at Newark, made use of William de Wodestoke, Abbot of the neighboring monastery of Croxton as his physician—and many other examples might be added. So late as 1452, the physicians of the University of Paris were not allowed to marry and in the same school, antiently, at the admission of the degree of doctor in physic, the graduate took an oath he was not married.

The character of the "*Doctour of Phisike*," by Chaucer, exhibits to us the state of medical knowledge and the course of medical erudition and customs then in fashion (500 years ago).

"With us ther was a *doctour of phisike*

"In all this world no was ther non him like

"To speke of phisike, and of surgerie;

"For he was grounded in astronomie.

"He kept his patient a ful gret del

"In houres by his magike naturel

"Wel coude he fortunen the ascendent

"Of his images for his patient.

"He knew the cause of every maladie,

"Were it cold, or hote, or moist or drie,

"And wher engendered, and of what humour,

"He was a veray practisour.

"The cause yknowe, and of his harm the rote,

"Anon he gave to the sike man his bote.

"Ful redy hadde he his apothecaries

"To send him drogges, and his lettuaries,

"For eche of hem made othe for to winne;

"His friendship n'as not new to begiano.

"Wel knew he the old Esculapius,

"And Dioscorides and eke Rufus;

"Old Hippocras, Hali and Gallien

"Serapion, Rasis and Avicen;

"Averrois, Damascene and Constantin;

\* Innocent III forbade all physicians, under pain of excommunication, to undertake the treatment of any disease, without having first called in an ecclesiastic.

- " Bernard and Gaieden, and Gilbertin.  
 " Of his diete mesurable was he,  
 " For it was of no superfluitee  
 " But of great nourishing and digestible,  
 " His studie was but little on the bible.  
 " In sanguin and in perse he clad was alle  
 " Lined with taffata, and with sendalle.  
 " And yet he was but esy of dispence ;  
 " He kepte that he wan in the pestilence.  
 " For gold in plisike is a cordial ;  
 " Therefore he loved gold in special."

Chaucer makes his "*Doctour of Phisike*" treat his patients, according to the rules of astronomy or astrology. This superstition prevailed, for a long time, in medicine and indeed in most of the sciences. In medicine it seems to have been introduced about the time of Tiberius, (A.D. 37) by one Crinas of Marseilles and others, who practised at Rome. But it was not until the thirteenth century, that the idea was freely entertained that the most intimate connexion existed between the human body and the universe, but especially between it and the planetary system, and that the physician ought, consequently, not to adopt any measures without having first consulted the constellations. Gilbert of England, probably the "Gilbertin" of Chaucer and Peter d' Abano, professor of medicine and astronomy at Padua, were great promulgators of the doctrine of astrology, during the thirteenth century; and during the fourteenth, Bernard de Gordon of Montpellier. In the statutes of New College, Oxford, given in the year 1387, medicine and astronomy are mentioned as one and the same science, and Charles the 5th. of France, who was governed entirely by astrologers, and who commanded all the Latin treatises which could be found relating to the stars to be translated into French, established a college in the University of Paris for the study of medicine and astrology.

Amongst the sovereigns of the fifteenth century there were many, who blindly adopted this Theosophy, and promoted its most objectionable superstitions. Amongst these the court of the Visconti at Milan was distinguished, although,

even then, some learned individuals, as Pic de la Mirandola and the Chancellor Gerson had courage sufficient to unveil the absurdity of the pretended science. Notwithstanding these laudable attempts, the belief in astrology was at its height, in the sixteenth century, (Sprengel *lib. cit.*) especially amongst the pupils of the celebrated Melancthon. Since that period it has been gradually subsiding and is now met with only in those almanacks—mementos of the superstitions of former times—which are designedly addressed to the ignorant and unreflecting. The proofs of the union of magic with medicine are beyond measure numerous. The combination has existed from the earliest times and is still in being, where superstition prevails to the necessary extent. Of this, evidences have been, or will be, afforded in the pages of this miscellany.

Of the authors, referred to by Chaucer, whom his "Doctour" is said to have studied. Esculapius and Dioscorides are well known. Rufus, of Ephesus, lived about the time of Trajan (A.D. 117.) Hippocras or Ypocras and Gallien or Galianes were used even by the Latin writer of the middle ages for Hippocrates and Galen.

Magnus erat medicus, *Hypocras* sum nomine dictus.

Alter et egregius vocitatus eram *Galienu*s.

MONASTIC. Tom. i

Chaucer uses also the words *Ypocras* and *Galianes*.

Hali was an Arabian of the eleventh century as well as Serapion. Avicenna or Avicenna was the most eminent physician of the same school. Rhasis may be also esteemed an Arabian physician, who practised at Cordoua in Spain, where he died in the tenth century. Averrhoes was born at Cordoua of an antient Arabian family and died about 1160. Damascene, secretary to one of the Caliphs wrote in various sciences before the Arabians had entered Europe. Constantine, the African, was born at Carthage, and was a monk of Cassino in Italy; he was one of the Saracen physicians, who brought medicine into Europe, and form-

ed the school at Salernum. Bernard was the Bernard Gordon—already mentioned—who appears to have been Chaucer's contemporary; and Gatisden was a fellow of Merton college, where Chaucer was educated about the year 1320, and was the most celebrated English physician of his age.

The Nuns, likewise, attended to medicine as an act of piety and charity. In the twelfth century, Abelard made those of the convent of Paraclet practice surgery. The most celebrated of those learned Nuns was Hildegarde, Abbess of the convent of Rupertsberg, near Bingen, whose revelations and miracles caused her to be numbered amongst the saints. She died in 1180. Her correspondence, which is still extant, informs us that the higher clergy, at that time, consulted her on all occasions. She has left behind her a sort of *matéria medica*, which was certainly not obtained from the writings of preceding physicians and comprised a variety of superstitious remedies.

Medicine, consequently, did not make much progress in the Monastic Institutions; as, whatever ardor was excited, by the encouragement given by Charlemagne to the Ecclesiastics, it was destroyed by the influence of superstition, and the despotism of the church, both of which exerted the most depressing influence on the intellectual energies; and all impartial historians consider that the reign of Lewis the Pious completely checked all zeal for the sciences.

Lastly, there is a law found in the decisions of several councils, which exhibits the care taken by the church for the preservation of the life of its proselytes. This law might have favored the study of anatomy had not prejudice opposed insurmountable obstacles to those desirous of following it. It directed, that the bodies of females who died during pregnancy or in their accouchement should be opened, that the infant might be saved—"Mortuæ mulieres in partu scindantur, si infans vivere credatur; tamen, si bene constiterit de morte ipsa-

rum." It was a revival of the royal edict published by Numa Pompilius.

22 Rb

## THE CONSTITUTION OF VIRGINIA.

### LETTER IV.

Dear Sir,

Having considered the legislative branch of the government, comprehending the important topics of the basis of representation and the right of suffrage, we will now bestow a briefer attention on the Executive, in the consideration of which we will notice its structure; the term of its service; the mode of its election; and its powers.

1st. *The structure of the Executive.*—I take it for granted that the chief duty of executing the laws will be assigned to a single individual; and that he will be assisted in his labours by a council; but concerning the character and powers of that council, there is room for great diversity of opinion. With the council of the present Constitution the dissatisfaction is almost universal, nor is it to be wondered at. In the jealousy which existed in this country, at the revolution, against the executive branch of the civil power, it was thought prudent to divide the large powers, then possessed by the executive, between a governor and a council, so that he could act in no instance without their concurrence: and thus, while the constitution had the appearance of securing the decision and unity of action arising from a single will, it was in fact clogged with the inconveniences and delays incident to an executive consisting of many. Nor was this all the mischief; for as the council consisted of eight members, it was liable to be equally divided, in which case, as no constitutional advice was given to the governor, he was unable to act, and consequently this power was so framed, as to be sometimes inoperative. Now this seems to be clearly wrong. In *legislation*, indeed, it can rarely happen that there can be an absolute necessity for a new law; and things may go on pretty well, at least, for a time, by letting them remain as they are. But with the executive, it is otherwise. In most cases they are imperiously called upon to act, and a forbearance or suspension of of their powers may produce serious incon-

venience. When laws are once enacted, they should be executed, and yet, by reason of an equal division in the council, about the mode, time, agent, or other incidental circumstance, they may remain unexecuted, under the present constitution of Virginia. If the convention decide in favour of an executive council, the vicious structure referred to, will, of course, be corrected.

There are many considerations to recommend such a council. Besides the advantage of consultation in all cases in which there is any room for the exercise of discretion, it will be thought safer and more consistent with the spirit of our government to divide the power and responsibility among several, than to confer it wholly on a single individual. The unseen influences of popular men in or out of the legislature, are also likely to be greater with one than with several; and when the acts of the latter are not really better, they will commonly give more satisfaction. But these advantages may be attained by a council formed of some of the officers of government such as the treasurer, and attorney general, by which the expense of a separate council will be saved. Public opinion, as you are aware, seems already to have thus decided this question.

2dly. *The term of service of the chief magistrate.* This will probably be annual as it has heretofore been in this state; and the governor be re-eligible, only for a certain number of years, so as to secure the benefits of rotation in office, by which the want of experience and practical skill are more than compensated by the greater zeal attendant on a new installation into office; by the salutary ambition excited in other candidates; and by the means it affords of conferring public honors on those who deserve them. But there may be strong objections to such a frequency of election, if the choice is given to the people, and if the executive powers are enlarged: and indeed it may be here remarked that the powers, term of service, and mode of election have a mutual influence on each other. The greater the powers, and the longer the term of service, the more agitating a popular election will be, especially if the right of suffrage is extended. These several points must then be adjusted to each other, so as to produce a well balanced and harmonious whole. A word now upon

3dly. *The mode of election.*—In several states the election of chief magistrate is made by the people at large annually, or once in two years. Where this is the case, especially if the governor has the power of appointing to lucrative offices, the public mind is kept in a state of agitation and party strife, that is the poisoner of all social intercourse. The comparative calm we have hitherto enjoyed in Virginia is a blessing not to be lightly appreciated nor inconsiderately put to hazard; and it seems probable that we owe our superior political quiet more to this part of the constitution than to any other circumstance, not excepting the freehold suffrage. The interruption to social harmony is but one of the evils growing out of a popular election of the chief magistrate, it also gives rise to a reckless spirit of proscription and injustice, punishes one man and rewards another, simply for their opinions, without regard to their qualifications for office, the faithful discharge of their duties, their public services, or moral worth. Political orthodoxy is made by the triumphant party to supply the place of every talent and every virtue; and thus the honors and emoluments of office, which should be bestowed with a single eye to the public good, are regarded as the property of those who appoint to them, and are made the instruments of gratifying every vindictive and malignant feeling, and of rewarding meanness, baseness, and hypocrisy. It is from these obvious tendencies that I hope to see the choice of the chief magistrate continued, as at present, in the legislature.

4th. *The powers of the executive.*—If the election of the chief magistrate be continued as it now is, with the legislature, it seems to me that if it is of small importance whether the appointing power to the higher offices of honor and profit be exercised by the chief magistrate, or, as at present, by the legislature; for in either case, the public tranquility is secured. I confess, sir, I have no conception that the power of appointment can be exercised so as not to be sometimes abused. Give it to whom you will, to one, a few, or the whole body of the people, and they will each, in exercising it, occasionally sacrifice the public interest to considerations of personal favor. If the people never err in this way knowingly, they are nevertheless more liable to be deceived; and if they do not al-

ways choose the most fit men as legislators, still less would they choose the most fit judges or generals. We must then make up our minds, I fear, to see this power, placed into whatever hands you please, and regulated by the most ingenious devices that the art of man can devise, sometimes perverted and ill employed; but by not calling on the people in their aggregate capacity, to exercise it, we gain in solid advantage of *public tranquillity*.

In my next, I shall trouble you with some remarks on the judiciary. Meanwhile,

I am with great respect, &c.

V.

#### ATTEMPT AT WIT.

We are sorry to see the really respectable work of Mr. Dwight on "Germany," to which we have drawn the reader's attention, sullied by such miserable attempts at wit as the following. Speaking of mutilations, sometimes experienced by the German students in their disgraceful contests, he observes.

"You probably have heard that artificial noses are made in Europe. One of the Heidelberg students, who had lost this member in such a contest, procured one, which was, in his opinion, a very respectable nose. While fishing in the Rhine, as he looked over the side of the boat to watch his nibbles, this ornament unfortunately dropped into the stream and was lost for ever. I received this anecdote from one of the Leipzig students, who had no doubt of the truth of it." p. 53.

If this "anecdote" as Mr. Dwight terms and esteems it, refers to the common artificial noses which have been made in Europe for ages, it is no more strange that it should dropp off, if insufficiently secured, than any other ornament of the body: but if it refers to the Taliacotian or engrafted nose, the story is idle and improbable. The narration of anecdotes is evidently not the fort of Mr. Dwight.

#### FRAGMENT.

My days are almost done; I feel that now  
No tie is left to bind my soul below:  
This faded form and eye, this pallid brow,  
My creeping blood, that just not stops to flow,

And something deadlier than the things I show,  
Tell me my mortal course is well nigh spent.

Dear — the light of life's departing glow  
Gilds the wreck'd hopes, whose ruin'd fragments blent,

Here into song, shall form a glorious monument;

Wherein thy name shall live for aye embalm'd,

The love and wonder of all coming time;

When passions raging now are still'd and calm'd,

Temper'd, and mix'd with thoughts that soar sublime,

Unclog'd of matter, through yon starry clime:  
Or hush'd it may be in eternal sleep,

While the sun wakes the world at morning prime

This verse thy memory shall greenly keep,  
And eyes unus'd to melt shall o'er it, bending, weep.

But where begin, and oh! more hard how end

A tale of woes whose tides continuous pour  
From the deep source to which again they tend,  
And thence, renew'd, roll onwards as before?  
Unlov'd I love, and I despair: what more!

Why need I pause upon the bitter choice  
Of griefs, drawn from my heart's exhaustless store?

In desolation let my soul rejoice  
My anguish shall find words, my agony a voice;

Ill-fated wretch! my manhood's opening morn  
Witness'd a deed, which threw a cloud around  
My quick young spirit, darken'd and forlorn.

My noble friend! that ball in the rebound  
Inflicted a far deeper, deadlier, wound  
Than thine, though mortal: when a proud heart cowers

Beneath a sense of guilt, in that profound,  
Absorbing thought, hell concentrates such powers

As casts a sullen gloom, e'en on our sunniest hours.

What demon tempted, or what fury urg'd?

Hate, rage, revenge? No: these did not rear  
Their baneful fronts; but honor must be purg'd  
Of stain by murder! One, who could not fear

An adverse weapon, trembled at the sneer  
Of fools he knew for fools, and would despise.

Tha' cowardice hath justly cost him dear.

TD.

Oh ! when, majestic virtue ! wilt thou rise  
And spurn such paltry things, or blast them with  
thine eyes ?

But the hard consciousness of blood and crime  
Had smote my soul and quench'd its burning  
glow ;

I wander'd forth, and in a foreign clime,  
To find a refuge from that stunning blow,  
I sought to learn what few can rightly know—  
The poet's hallow'd fire, the sages lore—  
Not unsuccessful, but in vain : the woe  
Within my bosom hid, for years I bore  
All silently, untold, to many a distant shore.

Oft too I sail'd on pleasure's idle stream  
Where goblets sparkled, and where beauty  
smil'd ;

But soon I knew things are not what they seem :  
From these I fled to view, alone, the wild  
Sublimity of Alpine mountains, pil'd  
In savage grandeur on the changeless snow,  
That crowns the earth. If aught has e'er be-  
guil'd

My torture, for a moment, 't was the show  
Of mighty nature spread, above, around, below,

Some craggy pinnacle on which I stood.

Oh ! who can gaze upon that deep blue sky,  
Where Faith has plac'd the mansions of the  
good,

Behold the high rocks rear their forms so  
high !

They curb the tempest as it flashes by ;  
Look on the lakes, the hills, the fields, the woods,  
The lightning clouds ; that far beneath them  
lie,

And think of self ? On the rapt mind intrudes  
No bitter thought, in those enchanted solitudes.

My own lov'd mountains will not yield a grave.  
Immortal Greece ! my heart then turns to  
thee—

To thy fair land, where Freedom's banners wave  
O'er men, whose deeds proclaim their spirits  
free

As were their fathers—men whose names shall  
be

To after ages as their sires' to this :

Old Marathon ! and thou ! Thermopylæ !

And ye all-glorious waves of Salamis,  
Will ye begrudge the tomb, where centres all  
my bliss ?

D. C. T.

## ENGLISH PROVINCIALISMS.—No 3.

"Collections of provincial dialects would often  
have been extremely useful ; many words es-

teemed peculiar to certain counties being re-  
nants of the language formerly in general use."

NARES.

ON SOME OF THE DIALECTS OF THE WEST  
OF ENGLAND.

The historical introduction, on Provin-  
cialisms in general, will have led the  
reader to expect a prevalence of Anglo-  
Saxon words in the dialects of Somers-  
eshire and the neighbourhood, mixed, of  
course, with the Danish. Until within the  
last few years we were in possession of no  
Glossary of the peculiarities of this portion  
of Britain ; but, recently, Mr. James Jen-  
nings, honorary secretary of the Metropoli-  
tan Literary Institution of London, has  
given to the world a small volume entitled  
"*Observations on some of the dialects in  
the west of England, particularly Somers-  
eshire*" with a Glossary of words, now in  
use there ; and poems and other pieces,  
exemplifying the dialect.

The philological knowledge of Mr. Jen-  
nings, unfortunately, does not seem to  
have fitted him well for the task ; his de-  
finitions are, doubtless, accurate, but, in the  
more interesting part, the etymological, he  
is extremely deficient. "I have made"  
he remarks "an occasional suggestion in  
the Glossary relative to the etymology of  
some of these words. A few are evident-  
ly derived from the *Latin*, and the *Monachism*,  
no doubt, of some of our forefa-  
thers, and a few from the *French* : but by  
far the greater part have, I presume, an  
Anglo-Saxon, some, perhaps, a Danish or-  
igin."

Two of the most remarkable peculiari-  
ties in the dialect of the west of England  
and particularly of a large portion of Somers-  
eshire are the sounds given to the  
letters a, and e. A has almost universally,  
the sound it has in father, in ball, tall, call  
&c. it is thus pronounced. The e, has  
most commonly the same sound as in  
French, or as a in *plane, cane, lane* &c.  
Th *th* has the sound of *d* ; *thread, through,*  
*thrash, throng* &c. being universally pro-  
nounced, *dread* or *dird*, *droo*, *drash*, *drong*  
&c.

The Matathesis or change of place in  
the letters, which, as has been remarked, is  
common amongst the cockneys, is equally  
so here ; *thrush, brush, rush* are called  
*dirsh, birsh, hirsh* &c. and *clasp, hasp, asp*

&c. are converted into *claps, haps, aps*.

Another peculiarity consists, in adding the letter *y* to many of the common verbs, in the infinitive as well as in some other parts of conjugations. *I can't sewy, he can't reapy, he can't sawy* are common expressions; as well as to *seiry, to reapy to sawy*.

Another peculiarity, and probably a vestige of antiquity, is the custom of converting the monosyllables into dissyllables: *air, both, fair, fire* &c., being pronounced, *ayer, booth, fayer, vier* &c.

The auxiliary verb *to be* is made nearly regular in its separate tenses. "*I be, thou beest or bist, thee beest, we be, you be, they or tha be* are constantly heard: but rarely *he be*, but *he is*. In the past tense, *war for was* and *were* is always used; as *I war, thee or thou wart, he war, we war, you war, they or tha war*. *We'm* is also often heard for *we are, you'm* for *you are* and *they'm* for *they are*.

The pleonasm, pointed out in the last article on provincialisms, of prefixing *a* to many words, prevails also in the west of England, as *alost, agone, abought* &c., for *lost, gone, bought*, &c.

But the most offensive orthoepical variation from correct English is in the substitution of the *z* for *s*, and of the *v*, for *f*. The *oi* is always also sounded like *wi*; as *spwile, bwile, pwint, pwison* for *spoil, boil, point, and poison*.

All these and other more trifling peculiarities will be seen in the following composition by Mr. Jennings, entitled:

"Farmer Bennet an Jan Lide."

A DIALOGUE.

*Farmer Bennet.* Jan! why dwon't ye right my shoes?

*Jan Lide.* Bin, maester 'tis zaw cowl'd, I can't work wi' tha *tacker* 1 at all; I've a brawk it ten times I'm shower ta da—da vreeze za hord. Why Hester hanged out a *kittle-smock* 2 ta drowy, an in dee minits a war a vrazu as stiff as a pawker: an I can't avoord ta keep a good vier—I wish I cood, I'd zoon right your shoes an *withers* 3 too—I'd zoon *yarn* 4 zum money, I warnt ye. C'an't ye vine zum work vor me, maester, theaze hard times. I'll do any thing ta *sar* 5 a penny. I can drash, I can cleave *brans* 6 I can make *spars* 7 I can thatchy, I can *shear ditch*, an I can *gripy* 8 too, bit da vreeze za hord. I can *wimpy*, 2 I can *messy*, or milky nif ther be need 'ot. I ood n mine dreav'in plough or any theng.

*Farmer Bennet.* I've a got nothing vor ye ta do, Jan; bit Mister Boord *banchond* 11 ta I jist now that tha war gwin ta wimpy, and that tha wanted zumbody to help 'em.

*Jan Lide.* Aw, I'm glad o't, I'll hirn auver an zee where I can't help em: bit I han't a bin *athin* 12 tha drashel o' Maester Boord's door vor a longful time, bin I thawt that Missis didn' use Hester well; but I dwon't bear malice, an zaw I'll goo.

*Farmer Bennet.* What did Misses Boord za or do ta Hester, then?

*Jan Lide.* Why, Hester, a-ma-be, war zummet ta blame too; vor she war one o'm, d'ye zee that *raud skimmerton* 13 thic ma game that frunted zum o'tha gennel-vawk. Tha zed 'twar time to a done wi' jitch litter, or jitch stuff, or I dwon know what tha called it; bit tha war a frunted wi' Hester about it; an I zed nif tha war a frunted wi' Hester, tha mid be a frunted wi' I. This zet Missis's back up, an Hester han't a bin a *choorin* 14 there zunz. Bit 'tis niver the-near ta bear malice: and zaw I'll goo auver an zee which way the wine da blaw."

1. *Tacker.* The waxed thread used by shoe makers from the verb *to tack*, to stitch together.

2. *Kittle-smock* and *kittle.* A smock frock; whence derived is not clear.

3. *Withers.* Others.

4. *Yarn.* Earn.

5. *Sar.* To serve, to earn: as "*I can sar but zixpence*" a day.

6. *Brans.* A brand; a stump of a tree or other irregular and large piece of wood fit only for burning, what in Virginia would be called a "chunk." Mr. Jennings considers that the word *bonfire* is a corruption from *brand and fire*, or as they term it, in the west of England, *bran-vier*, a fire of brands; that such is its origin there, is clear from the composition of the word: but other provincialisms are not so favorable to the idea. *Bayle* in Scotland means a flame or blaze of any kind from *Isl. Baal* a fire; and *bayle-fire* or *baal fire* is a bon fire. In the north of England the *l* has been exchanged for *n*, and hence *baan-fire*. *Baal-fire* is therefore in all probabi lity the etymon of *Bon-fire*. This is infinitely more probable than the idea of Skinner that the compound is derived from the the Latin, *bonus* or French, *bon*, good and fire; and more so perhaps than that of Mr. Todd who supposes that the primitive meaning of the word might be "a fire made of bones." The Anglo-Saxon *ball*



and Suio-Gothic *baal*, denoting a funeral pile and the Anglo-Saxon *Bael-fyr*, the fire of a funeral pile, are in favor of Mr. Todd's supposition—but the Icelandic *Baal* signifies a "strong fire in general and *bael-a* means to burn."

7. *Spars* from Anglo Saxon *sparran*, German *sperran*, to close, bar, &c. The pointed sticks, doubled and twisted in the middle, and used for fixing the thatch of a roof.

8. *Gripy*, to make *gripes*, *grips*,—small drains or ditches. (See Todd's Johnson.)

9. *Wimmy Winnow*—as *Wimmin dust*, chaff. This is probably a corruption from *winnow*.

10. *Messy*, or to mess—to serve cattle with hay—to give them their mess or measure.

11. *Banehond* or to *barenhond*, to bear in hand, to intimate, to affirm, relate: the expression has the same meaning in Scotland and is similarly used in Chaucer, whose expression is "*beren him on hond*, or *bare him on hond*,"—or "exhibited it clearly."

12. *Athin*, within.

13. *Rawd Skimmerton*. "Rode Skimmerton."—This, according to Mr. Jennings, is an exhibition of riding, by two persons, on a horse, back to back: or of several persons in a cart, having *skimmers* and ladders, with which they carry on a sort of warfare or gambols, designed to ridicule some one who unfortunately possesses an unfaithful wife or, according to Mr. Todd, who has been beaten by her. The game is now almost obsolete. Mr Todd has however noticed it in the last edition of his Dictionary.

14. *Choorin*, *Choor* means a job, any dirty household work, and a woman who goes out to execute such jobs is called a *choorer* or *choorwoman*, whence in Mr. Johnson's opinion, the term *char-woman*, pronounced *chairwoman*. *Char* is however a common old English, and originally Saxon, word, signifying a job or task.

"As the maid that milks,

"And does the meanest *char*."

—SHAKESPEARE.

The dialects of the North of England, in our next.

R.S. *then*

See p. 256. "*Bearing them in hand*," also meant, in the older writers, flattering their hopes, keeping them in expectation. See Jonson's *For*, Act 1. Scene 1.

#### ANDIRONS OR ENDIRONS.

A recent number of the "Yankee" affords a good example of the abuse of philology, regarding *Andirons*.

"By the by" observes the writer "our *andirons* are properly *and-brasses*, are they not? Or should they be written *handirons* or *handbrasses*? Or do we not employ a superfluous conjunction whenever we say *shovels*, *tongs* and *andirons*? May it not be that originally these articles, being all made together and invoiced together by the manufacturer, stood thus on paper—*shovels*, *tongs* and *irons*?" [! !]

September 1829.

Skinner believes, that they were originally called *handirons*: but this is not likely. In the North of England, the term *endirons* is employed to designate two large movable iron plates used to contract the fire place, and this was probably the original word. Todd, in his edition of Johnson, says, they are called in the north, *brandirons*, but in this we think he is mistaken. The only words, resembling this, that we know, are *brander* and *brandreth* signifying an iron, fixed over the fire, on which the kettle or any cooking utensils are placed: from Anglo Saxon *brnadred*, a *brandiron*, or Teut *brand-roede* a brandrod. The Scotch use *brander* and *brandreth* to signify a gridiron. Then fresher fish shall on the *brander* bleez, And lend the busy browster wife a heez.

ALLAN RAMSAY.

To *brander* also means "to broil on a gridiron."

"But now, Janet, canna ye gie us something for supper?"

Ou ay, sir, I'll brander the moorfowl that John Heather-blutter brought in this morning."

SCOTT'S *Waverley*.

*End Irons* have been called also *cob-irons* from Belgic *kop*, a head and *knob-irons*, "because" as Minsheu says "they be *andirons* with great knobbes or round heads, called also *creepers*, because they stand bowing in the chimney, as though they were to creepe."

The French call them *chenéts*, a diminutive of *chien* a dog—and dogs they are frequently termed by us, from being sometimes made to resemble that animal.

#### BAD BREEDING.

The following extract from the "Eclogues" of old Barclay, who flourished in

the sixteenth century, satirizes some errors against good breeding, still existing in the present, more polished, age, especially in steam boat entertainments.

"A special custom used is them amonge,  
 "No good dishe to suffer on boide to be longe  
 "If the dishe be pleasante, whether fleshe or  
 fishe,  
 "Ten handes at once swarme in the dishe;  
 "And if it be fleshe, ten knives shalt thou see  
 "Mangling the fleshe, and in the platter flee:  
 "Put there thy hands in peryl without fayle,  
 "Without a gauntlet or a glove of mayle."

*RA*

### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

*Public Examination.—Continued from page 208.*

#### SCHOOL OF CHEMISTRY.

Enumerate the attractions and products of the following decompositions:—viz.

1. When cyanide of mercury is acted upon by sulphuretted hydrogen.
2. When cyanide of mercury and muriatic acid are exposed to each other.
3. When phosphuret of lime is put into water.
4. Where a metallic sulphuret is operated upon by an acid and water.
5. When nitric acid converts tin into the peroxide.
6. When a metal is placed in contact with an acid and water.
7. When one metal precipitates another from its saline solutions.
8. When strong nitric acid precipitates iodine from solution of hydriodate of soda.

Why is the *order*, in which decompositions take place, insufficient to represent the *intensity* of chemical affinity?

What suppositions have been adopted in order to reconcile the following cases of composition with the atomic theory?—viz.

	Arsenic.	Oxygen.
1. { Arsenious acid . . . . .	38	16
{ Arsenic acid . . . . .	38	24
	Lead.	Oxygen.
2. { Protioxide of lead . . . . .	104	8
{ Deutoxide . . . . .	104	12
{ Peroxide . . . . .	104	16

What are the distinctive properties of protoxide of nitrogen, deutoxide of nitrogen and of nitrous acid gas?

What is the difference of composition between a *sulphuret* and a *hydrosulphuret* of a metal?

What is the difference between hydrates and solutions, and how may the former be distin-

guished from anhydrous bodies by the action of water?

When chlorine and ammoniacal gas come together, what are the products?

When neutral salts decompose each other why are their products also neutral?

What substances are employed to precipitate, 1. The metals from the earths. 2. The earths from the alkalis potassa and soda?

What is meant by an equivalent or proportional part?

#### SCHOOL OF PHARMACY AND MATERIA MEDICA.

Enumerate the causes which tend to render the composition of vegetable medicines irregular?

What medical effects characterize the preparations of lead, iron, and mercury.

Give examples of the following classes of medicines, not derived from the vegetable portion of the materia medica, viz., stimulants, tonics, emetics, cathartics, diuretics and sedatives.

Give the proximate composition and active constituents of cinchona bark and opium.

Give examples of decomposition, solution, precipitation and crystallization.

In what manner is it supposed that calomel improves the diuretic powers of digitalis, squills, &c.

Give the composition and uses of tartar emetic.

What is the difference between solution and fusion and between the terms evaporation and sublimation?

What is the nature of *Secale cornutum* and for what purpose is it employed in medical practice?

To what circumstance, independent of rancidity, are we to attribute the occasional violence of action and emetic effects of castor oil?

What is the composition of oxymuriate of mercury?

What properties are combined in rhubarb which renders it particularly eligible in cases of diarrhoea?

Why is castor oil better adapted to the cure of dysentery than other cathartics?

What fluids are employed for pharmaceutical purposes, and what are the advantages of each?

How are diaphoretics supposed to diminish febrile heat?

Mention the values attached to the divisions of troy weight.

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## THE VEHMGERICHTE.

"Bring forth the rack :

"Fetch hither cords and knives, and sulphurous flames,

"He shall be bound and gash'd, his skin flay'd off, and  
burnt alive :

"He shall be hours, days, years, a dying."

LEE'S *Edgar*.

The graphical allusions to the dreaded *Wehmgerichte* or *Vehmgerichte* and its extensive influence in the middle ages by Sir Walter Scott in his last novel—*Anne of Gierstein*—may render a brief account of that formidable tribunal interesting.

In criminal cases, especially, the *Vehmgerichte* would seem to have taken the place of the courts of justice—which had fallen entirely into decay during the middle ages. It originated and held its chief sitting in Westphalia, and its proceedings were carried on in the greatest secrecy; hence it was likewise called the Westphalian and secret tribunal. The word *Vehm* probably comes from the old Saxon word *Verfehen*, which signifies "banished," "put to flight." The institution dates its origin from the time of Charlemagne, although no contemporary historian has made mention of it. No accurate accounts of it, indeed, appear, prior to the thirteenth century.

These secret tribunals were most formidable in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries; and they did not lose their activity until the general peace enabled the Germans to introduce a better form and administration of criminal justice. The last *Vehmgerichte* was held in 1563 near Zelle. Besides Westphalia there were, in Lower Saxony and in some other German provinces, *Vehmgerichte*; but they had less consideration and their jurisdiction was restricted within particular limits; in Italy

too there are said to have been similar associations.

Owing to the secrecy, in which these tribunals were enveloped, little is historically known of their internal management. The *Stuhlher* or presiding judge—commonly a prince or earl—had the chief management of the whole tribunal, whose jurisdiction embraced several free chairs (*Freistuhle*.) The president of the secret court was called the *Freigraf*, or free count: his assessors (*Beisitzer*) who had a voice in the judgment and who executed it, were called *Freischoeffen* or free sheriffs; their sittings *Freidinge* and the place where the sittings were held the "free seat" (*der freie stuhl*.) The *Freischoeffen*, who were appointed by the *Freigraf*, existed in every town of Germany; and their number was estimated at one hundred thousand. They knew each other by certain signs and watchwords which were unknown to the uninitiated—hence they were called "the informed" (*die wissenden*.) They bound themselves by a formidable oath; for they vowed "the holy *Vehme* to support, assist and conceal before wife and child, father and mother, sister and brother, fire and wind, before every thing in heaven or on earth."

They acknowledged the emperor as their sovereign. The sittings of the tribunal were public and private; the former were held by day in the open air—the latter by night in a forest or in subterraneous and concealed places. The mode of proceeding in these places differed:—the crimes of which the secret tribunal took cognizance were:—heresy, witchcraft, rape, theft and murder.

The complaint was made by a *Freischoeffe*, who, without adducing evidence, deposed upon oath, that the accused had

committed the crime. The accused was now three times summoned before the secret tribunal, the summons being secretly nailed upon the door of his dwelling or in the neighbourhood; the accuser remaining unknown. If the accused did not make his appearance at the third summons, he was once more cited before a solemn sitting of the tribunal, called the secret "Acht," and if he still disobeyed he was outlawed or given up to the *Freischoeffen*. The first *Freischoeffen* now who met him, hanged him on a tree, not on a gallows—as evidence that it had been done by a *Freischoeffe*. If the condemned, defended himself, the *Freischoeffen* were authorized to slay him. Evidences were then placed near the body to shew, that no murder had been committed, but that it was a punishment, which had been executed by a *Freischoeffe*.

The idea of the number of unjustifiable judicial murders, that may have taken place, in this way, from envy, hatred or malice, strikes the mind with horror. If any *Freischoeffe* gave the slightest hint to one condemned by the *Vehmgerichte*, so that he might escape, the *Freischoeffe* himself was punished with death: and, hence, how easy must it have been by such a hint to induce the timid (and who would not be timid under such an administration of justice?) to flee from their homes, even when innocent and really unaccused? Without excepting the Spanish inquisition, which it in many respects resembled, the *Vehmgerichte* would seem to have been one of the most abominable institutions, with the forms of justice, ever adopted by any civilized judge: an institution in which the judge never promulgated the grounds of his verdict; where the forms were kept a profound secret and the accused condemned, even to death, without being heard.

*R. A. S.*

#### THE JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

A new periodical has been commenced in Philadelphia under this title. It is conducted by an association of physicians, and, if executed according to the views contained in the prospectus, will be a useful work.

\*

#### ENGLISH PROVINCIALISMS.—No 4.

"Collections of provincial dialects would often have been extremely useful; many words esteemed peculiar to certain counties being remnants of the language formerly in general use."

NARES.

#### DIALECTS OF THE NORTH OF ENGLAND.

In Cumberland, Lancashire, Northumberland and Yorkshire, the dialects, which strongly resemble each other, are, to a certain extent, modified, especially in the first and third of those counties, by the frequent communication with the Scottish borderers. The two last, likewise, contain a greater proportion of that variety of the Gothic which proceeded from the Danes. A writer, in one of the volumes of the *Gentleman's Magazine*, has taken the trouble to sift out the words purely Danish, which still exist in the dialect of Northumberland, and they are numerous.

##### 1. DIALECT OF CUMBERLAND.

Of this Mr. Clarke, in his tour to the Lakes, has given a specimen in the following dialogue, which, he says, was actually heard by him: some of the words he has quoted incorrectly: these we have altered.

"A country wench, not long ago, laid by her clogs 1, and new greased her skun 2 and away she gangs one sunday morning to Keswick, to see her sister Ruth, who was a sarrant at yan oth public houses. She goes to the Kurk in the morning and after dinner mud gang on to th' lake (to be seen) because heords and great fouk did seah. Accordingly, a parcel of girls, such as herself, attended by shoemakers, carters, chaise-drivers, hostlers &c., took with them a few bottles of wine and cider. They spent the afternoon no doubt agreeably enough to themselves: but our heroine, after the peregrination, being to give an account to her mother why she was so late home that evening, this curious dialogue ensued.

*Daughter.* Oh! moother, moother, an ye had been theear ye wad ha stay'd teu; seck fine wark ye niver saw. Efter dinner, we went toth lake.

*Mother.* Lake! eigh, thou wad lake 3 an ramp and rive o the cleayths, I war'n. Lets leuk if nin o them be roven? What lake wast? *Tennis or Anthony Blindman?*

*Daughter.* Moother ye dooent understand ma. Went to th' watter, an gat ontuet in a boat; at hed things, like a battelter on either side ont, at carrit it on some way or uther; an we drank finest stuff at ivver was, they cawt it *cine* an wider 4.

*Mother.* *Cine* an wider, uman, whats tatt?

*Daughter.* What's tatt? nay, I know nut.

*Mother.* What is't like?

*Daughter.* Like, its like? like, its like! nay I know nut what its like; its like *why*—*whig* 5, and *drink* 6, but far finer.

*Mother.* Hang the *cine* an wider, and the lakes; an thou hesnt roven the cleaths, nur worn the stockin-heels out, I kair nnt. Gitt te cloggs on, an doff that fine goon, an ligg by the hatt an aw things; thoo mun *full muck* 7 to mwoaro, or gang toth' moss for this *skelpin* 8 to day; it's far better for tha.

*Daughter.* O moother! yon talear Gweordy is a canny fellow.

*Mother.* Gitt away with the an thy canny fellow.

The greatest part of the above will be intelligible, differing chiefly from correct English in orthography and orthoepy; there are some words, however, which requite explanation.

1. *Clogs.* These are a sort of wooden shoes, the upper part formed of strong hide leather, and the soles of wood, plated beneath with iron—often termed *cawkers*. This word *cawkers* sets all etymology at defiance:—some have supposed, that it might be derived from *calx* Lat. the heel: but this is frivolous. In Scotland the word is applied to the curved horse shoe, or frost shoe, perhaps, as Jamieson remarks, from Isl. *Keikr*, curved; and from that of the horse it may have been extended to the human shoe.

2. *Shun, shoon*—this is old English.

"Spare none but such as go in clouted shoon  
"For they are thrifty honest men."

SHAKESPEARE.

Whos shoon y am not worthi to bere.

Matthew iii. WICLIFF.

The Anglo-Saxon word is *sceon*. Teut. *Schoen*.

*Schone* is the word used in Scotland.

This emprioure causit rich perle and precious stanis to be set in his *schone*. &c. &c.

BELLEND, Chron.

3. *Lake*, to play, and *laking*, a play-  
30

thing—are universal, from Anglo-Saxon *lacan*, to play; no other lake is known in Cumberland—the old lady exhibits this in asking what lake it was, Tennis or Anthony Blindman? the latter game is the same as blindman's buff, in which some one must have his eyes covered and hunt out the rest of the company. The play is common over Great Britain; but has various names in different parts; in the west of England it is called *blind-buck-and-Davy*; perhaps originally *blind buck and have ye*; and in Scotland it has no other appellations than *blind Harrie*.

"Some were blyth, and some were sad

"And some they play'd at *blind Harrie*."

Hord's Collection.

4. *Cine* and *wider*. Evidently a case of accidental Metathesis: a very awkward instance of this kind occurred to an orator, desirous of using the expression. "It was a wound from which he had long *felt the smart*:" an accidental metathesis completely put a stop to an interesting harangue from the ludicrous effects it induced upon the auditors.

5. *Why* *whig* or *whiggen'd why* means a pleasant liquor, made by infusing various aromatic herbs in whey, and suffering it to undergo fermentation. The Anglo-Saxon, *hwæg*, means serum: and, in Cumberland as well as Scotland, *whig* means a thin, sour, liquid of the lacteous kind. Wodrow derives the political term *whig* from this very word. "The poor honest people, who were in raillery called whiggs, from a kind of milk they were forced to drink in their wanderings and straits became name—fathers to all who espoused the interest of liberty and property through Britain and Ireland." Wodrow, however, himself, prefers the etymon, which is given by Burnet in his "own times."

"The south west counties of Scotland have seldom corn enough to serve them round the year; and the northern parts producing more than they need, those in the west come in the summer to buy at Leith, the stores that come from the north; and from a word *wiggam*, used in driving their horses, all that

drove were called the *whiggamors* and shorter the *whiggs*. Now, in that year (1648,) after the news came down of Duke Hamilton's defeat, the ministers animated their people to rise and march to Edinburgh; and they came up marching at the head of their parishes, with an unheard of fury, praying and preaching all the way as they came. The marquis of Argyll and his party, came and headed them, they being about six thousand. This was called the whiggamors inroad; and, ever after that, all that opposed the court came, in contempt, to be called whiggs; and from Scotland the word was brought into England, where it is now one of our unhappy terms of distinction." *Owen Times* i. 58.

6. *Drink*. This usually means, beer, small-beer.

7. *Full muck*—to load with *muck* or dung: *muck* is a good old English word from Saxon *meox*, dung. A heap of muck, or a dung hill is called a *muck-middin*: *middin* is also good Saxon in the same signification. Both *muck* and *middin* pervade all the northern counties as well as Scotland.

8. *Skelpin* is not often used in Cumberland, although to *skelp* is very common in Scotland; it means here—"to move quickly on foot, to trip along, especially applied to one who is barefooted."

"The well-win thousands of some years

"In ae big bargain disappears:

"Tis sair to bide, but wha can help it,

"Instead of coach, on foot they *skelp* it."

RANSAY'S POEMS.

"As lightsomely I glowr'd abroad,

"To see a scene so gay,

"Three hizzies, early at the road,

"Came *skelpin* up the way."—BURNS

Jamieson thinks that the word *skelp*, in this signification, may have the same derivation as *skelp* to beat, which seems to be from A. S. *scylf*—an to tremble—Isl. *skelf*—a to shake, to cause to tremble; and, as a sharp noise is made by the feet in walking quickly, the term has received the other signification.

## OF THE BATAKS, A NATION OF CANNIBALS IN SUMATRA.

—"of the Cannibals that each other eat,  
"The Anthropophagi!"

SHAKESPEARE.

It is a matter of well founded doubt, whether Cannibalism ever existed, with any people, from a fondness for human flesh as an article of diet; or that there ever was a time

"When men devour'd each other like the beasts

"Gorging on human flesh."

We have, in the antient writers, numerous accounts of Anthropophagous nations, and individuals, of Cyclops, Lastrygones, Scylla, Scythians, Sarmatians, Ethiopians, Egyptians and Kelt, but the authors, who have made us acquainted with some of their peculiarities, Homer, Herodotus, Pliny, Strabo, Juvenal, Solinus, and Pelloutier\* have not dwelt much upon the causes, which could have impelled them to this revolting banquet. More modern and accurate observations have generally exhibited, that this practice has been suggested by religious, or vindictive associations, sufficiently powerful to vanquish that repugnance which must necessarily be felt in feeding on our own species.

It is true, that we have some modern accounts, which would militate against this idea, if implicitly credited, as that of Herrera, who speaks of great markets in China furnished wholly with human flesh for the better sort of people; or that of Marco Polo, who refers to the circumstance in his time in the kingdom of Concha and in the island of Zapengit; and the same thing has been asserted to have been met with in Java, Siam, Sumatra and other oriental countries.

Unreserved confidence must not, however, be placed in the assertions of these old travellers: their fondness for the marvellous has now become proverbial, and we have no stronger instances of this, than in the records of the Mexican portion of our own continent, especially as regards the number of human victims, sacrificed in Mexico, so much exaggerated by the Spanish historians. According to Gomara, there was no year in which twenty thous-

\* See Virey's *Hist. Naturelle du Genre Humain* t. ii p. 46.

See p. 289

K.P.

and human victims were not offered to the Mexican divinities; and, in some years, they amounted to fifty thousand. Herrera's account is still more incredible,—that five thousand were sacrificed in one day and, on some occasions, not less than twenty thousand. The fact that, if such a destruction of human life had really occurred the country must soon have become depopulated, never seems to have struck those historians. Still the number immolated was probably very great.

When this continent was discovered the practice of Cannibalism was found to be almost universal, but, in all instances, it was probably followed merely for the satisfaction of revenge.

These observations have been occasioned by the report of a journey into the Batak country, in the interior of Sumatra, made in the year 1824 by Messrs. Burton and Ward, Baptist missionaries; which was published in the third part of the first volume of the "*Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland.*" The people of this country had been already described by Mr. Marsden as Anthropophagous, eating human flesh as a species of ceremony, "as a mode of shewing their detestation of crimes by an ignominious punishment; and as a horrid indication of revenge and insult to their unfortunate enemies."

Messrs. Burton and Ward undertook their journey at the request of the late Sir Stamford Raffles, then Lieutenant Governor of Bencoolen. The enterprise was hazardous, chiefly from the reported ferocity of the Batak character and their known Cannibalism; but the travellers seem to have been agreeably disappointed in this respect.

Great ignorance appears to prevail amongst the Bataks, who are estimated by Messrs. Burton and Ward to amount to a million of souls. They resemble, in their appearance, the Hindus; wear the hair long and tied at the top of the head, and the women part their hair in front; both according to the custom of Hindustan. Their principal food is rice and the sweet potatoe; animal food being a luxury indulged only on particular occasions. In their choice of animals they are by no means delicate; they do not scruple to eat horses, dogs, cats, snakes, monkeys and bats: and whether the animal was killed or died a natural

death makes no great difference in their opinion, or whether it be recently dead or bordering on putridity.

"Nothing," says Messrs. Burton and Ward "can be more erroneous than the opinions, commonly entertained by the Malays, in their neighbourhood as well as by Europeans, with regard to the general character and disposition of the Bataks. The well established fact of their Cannibalism, has, perhaps, naturally led to the conclusion, that they were a remarkably ferocious and daring people. So strongly indeed had this impression taken hold of our minds that, although a residence of two years on the border of their country had furnished nothing to confirm the opinion, we still expected to find proofs of it in the interior. So far from this, however, whatever may be the fact with respect to other districts, the people of *Silindung*, in quietness and timidity, are apparently not surpassed even by the Hindus. Misunderstandings between individuals of the same village seldom go beyond words, or a complaint to the chief; and their wars are little more than nominal. These will often continue for five or six years without proving fatal to more than two or three persons of each side. The hostile parties commit no depredations on each other's crops or cattle; and an instance occurred, during our stay in *Silindung*, of two men coming upon private business to the village where we resided, from one with which our host was at war, when he hospitably entertained them and suffered them to depart in peace. We mean not to say, however, that the *Bataks* are a kind and humane people; instances of their extreme unfeelingness and cruelty towards the afflicted and to enemies in their power are lamentably numerous. Their seemingly peaceable disposition may perhaps be resolved into cowardice, and the influence of a dark and enslaving superstition, from the shackles of which they are never, for a moment, free."

Their religion is a wild and incoherent system, but they "believe in the existence of one supreme being, creator of the world, whom they name *Debati Hasi Asi*" who has retired in their opinion, from the government of the universe, which he has committed wholly to the care of his three sons, *Batra Guru*, *Sori Pada*, and *Magna Bulan*, the first the god of Justice, the second the god of mercy and the last the source of evil. They do not worship idols; but in every village there is the image of a man whom they use in administering

oaths. They have no idea of a future state of rewards and punishments.

Their language seems to be a dialect of the Malay. Their laws are connected with the practice of Cannibalism. Persons caught in the act of burglary or highway robbery are publicly executed with the knife or matchlock and then *immediately eaten*! A man taken in adultery is instantly devoured and may be *lawfully eaten piecemeal without first depriving him of life*! Men killed, or prisoners taken in a great war, are likewise publicly eaten; but if only two villages be engaged, the eating of prisoners is not allowed.

Slavery exists amongst the Bataks, in a domestic form; slaves are not imported; they are treated very mildly not being punished corporeally. The chief causes of slavery are the inability of parents to support their children, whom they sell; debt or inability to pay fines imposed by law, and captivity in war.

Arts, manufactures and agriculture are at a low ebb amongst them, and property in land appears to be scarcely yet established.

Messrs. Burton and Ward remark that, under such a system as they describe, "it will not be thought surprising that the Bataks should bear in their character the features of imbecility, cowardice and cruelty." The matter of surprise is, that with customs which tend so strongly to the debasement of the human mind, they should be found to possess several of those more elevated qualities which the travellers have described.

RD. X

#### CULTIVATION OF SILK.

The cultivation of silk is now engaging the attention of some of our most eminently scientific individuals. The learned and indefatigable Duponceau is bending all his energies to the encouragement of the native silk of this country; and, under his patronage, a French gentleman, M. D'Homergue—well acquainted with the operative details, is publishing a series of essays on the subject, in the *National Gazette*, to which, when completed and embodied into a pamphlet, as we understood they are likely to be, we shall probably draw the reader's attention.

The thanks of the public are especially due to M. Duponceau and we have no doubt he will reap his reward.

RD.

#### THE CONFESSIONS OF A PIRATE.

'Tis education forms the common mind,  
Just as the twig is bent, the tree's inclined.

POPE.

We cannot vouch for the truth of the subjoined narrative, although we have received it from a respectable source. We give it to our readers, under the belief that they will peruse it with interest, and draw from it more than one instructive moral.

One morning during the winter of 1820-21, Mr. C——, a member of Congress from one of the northern states, entered the hall of the house of representatives, just as the chaplain had begun his customary prayer. As the member stood at his desk, with his eyes resting on the bundle of documents and newspapers which had been just placed there, he was observed by the gentleman who stood next him, to exhibit a fidgetty restlessness during the service, and, as soon as the divine had pronounced "amen," he withdrew with his papers, to a committee room, as was supposed; and on his return some hours afterwards, he was perceived to have a serious, anxious and abstracted air, which he retained for several days. The causes and the consequences of the deep interest he thus betrayed, will be best explained by the following correspondence.

House of Representatives, Jan. 17. 1821.

MY DEAR SIR,

I must tax your friendship to give a prompt attention to the subject of this letter. The Intelligencer of to day contains a long list of persons, who have been tried and convicted of piracy, in Charleston, and whose execution has been respite until the President's pleasure is known. Among them, I see one of my own name. Such a coincidence may not seem worthy of notice; but as I have a double christian name, and my surname is far from being a common one, I cannot divest myself of the fear that this unfortunate person is a member of my family. Nay, it is but too probable that he is most nearly related to myself; for you may remember that I told you, when we nessed together here, that I was wild in my youth, for one of my country and persuasion. I must entreat you, my dear P——, to see the wretched



being who bears my name, and learn of him his age and parentage. It is thought here that the President will sanction the execution of but a small number of those convicted, and if my fears should be well founded, I may yet make some atonement for a neglect which but too naturally led the object of my inquiry to crime, and the melancholy catastrophe which now threatens him. You will of course regard this letter as entirely confidential. I am with unchanged esteem and regard, truly your friend.

NATHAN E. C——.

Charleston Jan. 26. 1821.

MY DEAR C——,

Whatever sins of your youth you may have to answer for, I have the satisfaction of telling you that this is not one. And you might have been sure that so near a relation of your's would have had too much prudence, as well as propriety of conduct, to get into such a scrape; and that if he were villain enough to turn pirate he would have had too much wit to be caught. Immediately on the receipt of of your letter, I posted off to the jail, and soon got access to your worthy namesake. I found him a stout, athletic, young fellow, of about two and twenty, and as I thought, (see the force of imagination!) very like you, except that his hair is much lighter, and his complexion much darker. I experienced some difficulty in speaking to him, apart from his comrades, the most ill-looking desperate set of rascals you ever beheld; and of breaking the matter to him, so as to prevent his framing a plausible story for the occasion. But his first answer satisfied me that we had no cause of apprehension, for, on my asking him where he was born, he promptly replied, "in Bridge Town, Barbadoes." On further inquiry, he informed me that his mother was a native of that island, and had died about three years since, but that his father was an American sailor from Boston, who had promised her marriage, but had deserted her. I have since learnt from one of the counsel of the pirates, that this fellow's real name was *Woodruff*, (he had been indicted with an *alias*;) and that he had borne yours only for two or three years, how or wherefore I did not learn, so that you see, my dear C——, that the mother of this youthful freebooter, who is about to pay

the penalty, of his crimes, instead of being a buxom nymph of the Green Mountains, is a creole; that he owes his existence to some jolly tar of New-England; and that the offspring of this second Yarico has been, by a course of even-handed justice, only retaliating, on our citizens, the wrongs she had received from one of their countrymen.

But to say the truth, in contemplating this scene, some pity for this young fellow's fate mingled with horror for his crimes, for, besides his prepossessing appearance, very like an honorable member from——, his demeanour was grave and proper; his conversation shewed intelligence; and I conceived that he would have expressed penitence, if a good deal of pride, and a dogged determination to "die game," had not prevented him. Should it not be found necessary to make examples of all these offenders, I cannot but hope that he may be one of the pardoned.

You perceive my dear C——, that I have made myself a little merry, with your apprehensions now that I have discovered them to be groundless; for we married men, like the fox who having lost his tail, would persuade the other foxes that these appendages were unfashionable, never lose a chance of taunting you bachelors, till you fall into our fashion. I trust that you will be so much rejoiced at my intelligence, as to excuse the levity accompanying it, and, out of gratitude, vote with the south for the admission of Missouri. I intended to write you a long letter of expostulation on this frenzy of your people, but my anxiety to communicate welcome tidings will not let me add more than that I am, in all sincerity, your constant friend.

J. P——.

Washington, Feb. 6. 1829

You will be surprized, my dear P——, to learn that your letter, instead of removing my doubts, has but served to increase them. But it is no wonder that your reasoning is unsatisfactory, when, in the haste in which I wrote to you, I did not furnish you with the requisite materials. I omitted to tell you that though a lawyer now, I once was a sailor; and that though a resident of Vermont, I have been in Barbadoes. It is true I was born in Connecticut, but then we, of New-England, all "hail" from Boston, when in foreign coun-

tries. From these facts you perceive that you have been too hasty in your conclusion, and yet you afford me reason to hope that I am not the father of that unfortunate youth. You will learn the cause of my perplexity from the following narrative.

When I had finished my education, and had made a few voyages, my father, who had been engaged in the West India trade, sent me out in one of his vessels to Barbadoes, to make a settlement with a merchant there, with whom he had had extensive dealings. My father's correspondent in the island received me very kindly, and insisted on my taking up my quarters in his house. I there became acquainted with the young woman, who is doubtless the mother of this poor fellow. Nancy Merton, then about fifteen, was employed as a seamstress in my friend's family. She was pretty, lively, and susceptible. The licentious habits which prevailed among the creoles, had an effect on one, like myself, in the hey-day of life; and, altho' I felt extreme disgust at the intimacy which openly subsisted between persons of different complexions, yet their manners, and example, with shame I confess it, wrought upon me to become this girl's lover and seducer. But it is not true that I promised her marriage. A wish to justify herself in the eyes of her child, and the world, has no doubt induced her thus to aggravate my injury to her. When I left her, she gave me to understand that she would be a mother. But having some doubt of her veracity, I chose to rely upon the information I should afterwards receive; and I promised her that I would educate, and provide for, the fruit of our intimacy.

After I returned home my father, who had formed a very favorable opinion of my talents for business, from the success with which I had managed his affairs in Barbadoes, recommended me to study law. I took his advice, and put myself under the guidance of the celebrated Pierpoint Edwards. While I was thus engaged, I learnt from Mr. Piper, my Barbadoes friend, that this unhappy girl about three months after I left her, had formed a connection with an officer of the 44th Regiment; that she had had a son, on the birth of whom, the officer had turned her adrift, alleging that she had deceived him; that she had then become the *chere amie* of another officer, whose name was *Woodruff*, with whom she and

her child had gone to Jamaica, where he presumed they then were. After this information, she occupied but little of my thoughts. I met with success in my profession, and finding myself a confirmed old bachelor where I had made a good estate, I tried to trace out the mother and her child. I advertised in several of the islands; but all my efforts proving fruitless, I concluded that both the objects of my search had died prematurely. The mother it seems is dead; and, under present circumstances, it would be a great relief to me to know that the son was so too. My mind is perplexed with doubt on the subject. If, on the one hand, this young man's name is really *Woodruff*, as you say was proved in court, then he is the child of one of my successors, and, having occasion to change his name, for some purpose of concealment, he has taken that of a person of whom he had probably heard his mother speak. But against this supposition is his apparent age, as in the case I have supposed, he would be barely twenty. May not the hard and adventurous life he has led, make him look two or three years older than he is? But then again you perceive a strong resemblance to me; and yet the imagination often does wonders on these occasions. I trust, my dear friend, that your next letter will relieve me from this state of suspense, often more painful than certainty. You will now know how to direct your inquiries, without needing instructions from me.

Should my fears be realized, my first object shall be to save his life. It is to no purpose to say that that life is forfeited by the universal law of the civilized world. It is probable that he is not as guilty as his associates. He is young, and may have been seduced by them. I feel that if the sentence of the law be executed on him, I shall consider that I have, by failing in my duty as a parent, contributed to take away the life I had given. The president, who, you know is a man of very benevolent feelings, seems disposed to pardon most of them, but I understand that the cabinet is divided on the policy of this course. I have called on him twice to learn his intentions; but I dare not disclose to him, or any other person, the motives that actuate me. It has been proposed to let the judge who tried this man, and the District Attorney, select four of the worst for execution.

I shall endeavour to have the decision postponed until I get your answer. I would relieve you from this unpleasant duty, by coming on myself, but I feel that I ought not to quit my post at this moment; and besides, how could I bear the publicity which my journey would give to the whole affair? Write to me as soon as possible, and believe me to be

your sincere and grateful friend

NATHAN E. C.—.

Charleston, Feb. 1835.

Most truly, my dear Sir, do I entreat your forgiveness for the hasty and imperfect way in which I made the inquiry you wished, as well as the unseasonable levity with which I unconsciously wounded your feelings. I have acted with more caution and deliberation since, and my efforts have been but too successful. But you shall hear. I repaired to the jail as soon as I received your letter, and had an interview with the young man. I began with holding out a ray of hope; suggesting that only a part of those convicted would be executed. He looked me full in the face, as if to inquire what were my real motives; but immediately afterwards, assumed an air of indifference, which evidently cost him an effort. I then ventured to suggest to him that some of his father's relations in Boston, "the Woodruffs," might perhaps interest themselves in his behalf, and join in a petition to get him pardoned. He shook his head, and said he had no claim upon them; he had not known there were any persons of that name in Boston; and as to *relations*, he had never known what it was to have one, except his mother; and at the mention of her name, he was evidently much moved. I inquired of him how he had passed by the name of "Woodruff," if he had no right to it. He again tried to read my countenance, and hesitated. I then, by soothing language, tried to gain his confidence, and so far succeeded as to obtain from him a promise to give me an honest account of himself; but he proposed to do so in writing, to which I readily assented, as, during our short interview, my ears were assailed with such a horrible mixture of oaths, coarse jests, reviling and banter as to make my blood run cold. On the next day I called again, and received from him the manuscript, now inclosed.

The manuscript is with a few slight alterations in these words:—

"I was told by my mother that I was born in Barbados, under the circumstances that I have mentioned, and that my father's name was the same as my own. But from my earliest recollection I was living at Kingston, in Jamaica, at the barracks, in a house where a number of officers messed. My mother lived with a Capt. Woodruff, of whom I have no reason to speak well. He was always scolding me or jeering me for being a Yankee; and all my life since, this has sounded in my ears as the vilest of reproaches—His harsh usage made the house disagreeable to me, and I was never so happy as when I was playing with the children of the soldiers. I was sent to no school—the captain saying "the *Yankee*" would learn how to cheat fast enough, without instruction—and I continued this sort of life, (which, after all, was the happiest I ever knew,) until I was about nine or ten; at which time, the captain's regiment being ordered to Gibraltar, he refused to take my mother with him, and left her to shift for herself, with as much money as would barely support her decently for a year.

Unwilling to bear the cruel taunts of some, and the pity of others, she moved to another part of the town, and opened a small tavern or lodging house; and as the soldier's boys had commonly called me "Woodruff," as well as my mother, she, taking the hint, called herself by the same name, and told me that henceforth I must pass by no other. My hatred of the captain had extended to his name, but I complied with my mother's wish, with less reluctance, because I thought it would save me from the odious appellation of "Yankee."

My mother now talked of sending me to school, as soon as she had got settled, and had saved a little money, but as she liked to furnish her house decently, was fond of dress herself, and living was very dear, the desired moment never came. The consequence was, that I passed my time in loitering about the streets; in fishing; going over to the barracks to meet my former play-fellows, and in listening to the conversation of the men who used to come every evening to smoke and drink under a large tamarind tree, in my mother's back yard. One of the most constant of our customers was an old fellow who had been a warrant officer in the navy, and then had

a small place in the custom-house. He had sailed under Anson; had fought under Drake; was in the engagement off the Dogger Bank, and he used to tell of what he had seen and done to all he met, especially a small trader, his particular friend, who listened with great wonder and delight to his marvellous tales, and who often insisted on paying the reckoning. I had heard old soldiers at the barracks tell of their campaigns; their marches; their foraging parties; and lastly their bloody battles; but there was something to my mind much grander and more imposing in a sea fight—an exchange of broad sides; the decks covered with the limbs and brains of the dying and the dead; the scuppers running with blood; the captain's trumpet and the boatswain's whistle mingling with the thunder of the cannon. Then I thought of the great deep itself; its storms and billows; its rocks and breakers; and of the noble ship cutting her way through it, at one time, under a cloud of canvas, and at another, close reef'd; or scudding under her bare poles. Then too, the delights of entering into port, after braving these perils; of receiving a hat-crown full of prize money; and of making ducks and drakes with joes and doubloons, which the soldier, poor devil! never sees. The ocean, as my fancy thus painted it, seemed to present the only road at once to riches and glory.

At length I told my mother I was determined to be a sailor, and begged her to let me enter a sloop of war, then lying on the harbour. But my mother, who was very much attached to me; the only being, except one, who I thought ever really loved me; strongly objected. But knowing that she commonly yielded when I persevered in any request, I persisted in my entreaties, and finding that she still refused, I ran off one evening to the rendezvous house to enlist. But as she kept a sharp watch upon me, I was soon missed; and the shopkeeper, over whom my mother had great influence, overtook me, and brought me back. The next day by his advice, she bound me as an apprentice to a ship carpenter. This man took the precaution to lock me up every night, and soon made me stand in such fear of him, that I gave over all present thoughts of adventures on the deep. But as we were often employed in repairing vessels, I had frequent opportunities of making acquaintance with sailors, and their con-

versation served to revive and keep up my inclination for the sea, which I meant to indulge as soon as my indentures were out; and in the mean time, I thought I would patiently submit to the drudgery of my trade.

At this time I was about fifteen, but almost a man in stature. Thus reconciled to my situation, I worked with more steadiness, and became tolerably expert in the use of tools, which induced my master to relax in his severity. I was permitted to go to my mother's, of an evening, and to a punch-house on Sundays, where I met some of my former comrades. After a while, instead of visiting my mother, I would slip over to the barracks to see my old cronies, and was there initiated in the mysteries of cribbage and all-fours. Often have I sat up the greater part of the night, at cards, and pretended to my master that I had stayed at my mother's, either because she was sick, or had troublesome people in the house; and these excuses made me feel my present thralldom more irksome than ever. I seldom visited my mother, and when I did, it was with a feeling of importance to join my friends at the barracks. She fretted at my neglect, and would sometimes pass from complaints to reproaches; but these always furnished me with a pretext for leaving her. "Mother," I said to her one day, "I won't be snubb'd like a child any longer, and if you don't leave off rating me in this way, I'll be d—d if I come to see you any more," upon which, I turned off, and left her in tears. I had horrid luck that night, and all the time was thinking it was a judgment on me; which serv'd but to increase my ill-humour. At length I detected one of the fellows "giving item" to my adversary; a circumstance I should have disregarded at another time. I charged him with the act. He told me I was "a lying Yankee," on which I struck him. The riot that ensued brought down two of the officers, who, hearing the circumstances, reprimanded their men, and threatened, if they caught me there again, I should receive fifty lashes. I had seen too many instances of their acting in this lawless way to doubt their word, and I took my final leave of the Barracks.

I now left off play for more than a fortnight, in which time I visited my mother very regularly, and thought I would quit

cards; but fate or the devil decided otherwise. A large ship in the sugar trade wanting some repairs in her upper works, my master, who was employed to do the job, set me about it. On the second day, a sudden squall coming up, I stepped into the fore-castle until it was over, and found there two of the men at all-fours. I looked on, while the rain fell in torrents. I was asked to try my hand. I did so; and from that time I never let a day pass without taking a game with these jolly fellows; especially as I found them far less expert than my friends at the barracks. They did not, however, seem to like me the less for winning their money; were amused at my stories; and proposed to me to join them, adding, "that I had too much spunk for a land lubber." I required but little persuasion. They secreted me on board, and after we were out of sight of all but the Blue Mountains, the captain was informed of the fact, and I was brought from my hiding place. "My lad, said he, you deserve a cat o' nine tails, but you'll not get it from me, if you will do your duty now. You must earn your living while you are on board of this ship. I'll have no drones here. If you do a man's work, you shall have a man's wages. You seem to be a handy fellow with a tool—I want a hen-coop for these Guinea pigs, and a new ferule to my cane." On my remarking that I had brought no tools, he swore I had "no more brains than a mallet," and ordered me to make use of the ships' tools.

Notwithstanding this ungracious reception, I rejoiced to find that I was now my own man; and that I was at last fairly afloat on that ocean which was, to my fancy, the theatre of all that was manly and heroic. I set about learning what I could of seamanship, and, saving the business of going aloft, my repugnance to which I found it difficult to conquer, I became a tolerable sailor, during this voyage. After about a week, I passed a part of nearly every other watch at cards. When we arrived at Liverpool, the captain paid me something less than half the ordinary wages, and discharged me.

Flattered about this great and busy town, seeing what was new and curious, and searching for some one with whom I could have a little sport, until I spent all my money, when I entered a volunteer, on board the Grampus sloop of war. Here, in two

years, I became a first rate seaman; and took it in my head also to learn to read and write of one of my messmates carefully concealing, all the while, my knowledge of the carpenter's trade. I had few opportunities of indulging my favorite propensity here, although I was always on the look out for them. I did however, now and then, get a game in either the orlop, the fore-castle, or the maintop.

While we were on a cruise in the Southern ocean, we stopt at the mouth of the La Plata to water, and I was sent on shore with a party, under a midshipman, a sharp little fellow, who had discovered my fondness for cards, and threatened to report me. Three of us went off to look for a fit place, and coming soon to a little rapid stream, shadowed over with tall trees. I thought we should have time for a short game, and proposed it. We accordingly sat down to it, but the moments glided more rapidly by than we were aware, for the little devil of a midshipman came upon us, in the midst of our game. He inquired whose cards they were, and on hearing they were mine, he not only cursed me, but struck me with his rattan. Galled at the interruption of my game, and at being struck by such a whipper snapper, I hit him a blow in the short ribs which laid him senseless. My comrades ran to the midshipman to ascertain the extent of his injury, and I, alarmed at what I had done, betook myself to the woods as fast as my legs could carry me. After travelling for several miles through an uncultivated country, I at length reached a miserable looking hut, where however I found shelter and comfort. I thought it prudent now to resume my real name. I continued in this retired spot, or its neighbourhood, nearly a year; having in that time learnt the Spanish language; but growing inexpressibly weary of so inactive a life, I embarked on board a vessel bound to the Havanna, which I reached in safety.

I sailed out from that port for about two years, during which time my practice was, after I had made money, to stay in port until I had spent it at the gaming table. But having, once or twice, caught a glimpse of some of my former shipmates on board the Grampus, I thought it prudent to remove to Matanzas, a smaller and less frequented port than Havanna. Here I met with fellows enough of my own kidney; and I

saw them squandering money, acquired I knew not how, but I could not help suspecting, as greater men have acquired empires—by the right of the strongest. Some of these fellows owned small vessels, called “Droguers,” which coasted round the island, under the pretext of trade, and would, when a good opportunity presented itself, attack and plunder the unarmed merchantmen. At other times, they would follow their lawful occupation as coasters. I entered on board of one of these vessels, owned and commanded by Pedro Gomilla, who had the character of always making a good cruise by some means or other. We had not been out three days before we were taken by an English frigate; and her commander, knowing Gomilla’s character, put five men on board our schooner, and ordered us to Jamaica for trial. The day of reckoning seemed now to have arrived. Alarmed at the prospect of punishment for striking, and perhaps killing an officer, I formed the scheme of retaking the vessel; and I communicated my intentions to Gomilla; who had his reasons, too, for dreading an investigation, and agreed to join with me. I told him I did not wish to shed blood. I thought we two could overpower the rest, for I had great confidence in my strength. Gomilla laughed at my scruples. “You killed one man,” said he, “for baulking you of a game of cards, and you’re unwilling to kill another who is carrying you to the gallows. Well, if you have not pluck enough for the job, you’ll get the halter that you deserve.”

Thus goaded, I consented to do what was necessary, but secretly determined not to have another man’s blood on my head, if I could avoid it. The next day, at a signal agreed on, as the prize master was pacing the deck, Gomilla seized a billet of wood, and striking him on the head, laid him sprawling; then drawing the officer’s hanger, ran forward where two of the men were at work. The other two were below. At the same moment, I snatched up the axe, and swore I would cut any man down who attempted to move. In a little while the prize master having recovered from his blow, ran forward with a pistol, and pointed it towards me, just as it went off. I struck the axe full in his breast, and he fell lifeless on the deck. The ball passed through my coat, and wounded one of his own men in the shoulder. We were now

masters of the schooner: we put two of the others in irons, and we allowed the third his liberty, on his agreeing to assist us in carrying the vessel back to Matanzas.

It was sometime before I got over the shock of this second affair, but I excused myself on the plea of necessity, and consoled myself with the salvage money that Gomilla allowed me, small as it was. I did not think it prudent to venture soon to sea again, and I passed my time at the gaming houses, and in every sort of debauchery. I formed an intimacy with a Spanish *quadronee*; became extravagantly attached to her; and my love shewed itself in the most tormenting jealousy. The chief object of my suspicions was Gomilla, who seemed always to hate me, after he had defrauded me. Seraphine’s mother was his landress, and that furnished him with a pretext for visiting the daughter. I met him one night at a gaming house, when I had unusually bad luck, and it so happened that he won as fast as I lost. He quitted the house in the highest glee, and I continued the game, until I lost my last doubloon, or rather dollar. A sudden suspicion seized me. I ran over to Seraphine’s. A man had just come out of the door. I recognized Gomilla. “What have you been doing at that house?” said I. “Fooling away my money as you have your’s,” said he, with a chuckling laugh. “Villain, said I, do you think to wrong me every way, and insult me in the bargain?” and I struck him. He drew a dirk, with which I knew he was always provided, and made a pass at me. I received it on my arm, defended by my cloak,—I closed with him; wrested his weapon from him, and plunged it three times, up to the hilt, in his bosom, in a frenzy of jealousy still more than of resentment.

I knew that the rascal had a sort of influence in Matanzas, as he brought a great deal of money to the town, and was in fact as respectable as a large part of the population. I therefore ran down to the wharves, and soon came to a boat, which was then putting off to a schooner in the offing. I eagerly inquired if she wanted hands. The man in command said “can you fight?” Yes, I replied. “Can you keep a secret?” was the next question. “Yes, for my own sake,” I again answered. “Then jump in, said he, and now pull away my Hearties.” Our anchor, even

then apeak, was weighed in silence, and before it was broad day we were out of sight of the harbour. Such another crew my eyes never beheld, as you may well believe when I tell you they are the same that you yesterday heard swearing and brawling in the next room. Among about thirty five men, were to be found, Spanish, French, English, Irish, Italian and three Americans, two of whom were from Baltimore, and one from New York. I soon found that although they had a letter of marque to cruise against the Columbians, their object was plunder, they cared not how, or from whom.

For the first three or four weeks they contented themselves with chasing and overhauling vessels, to see if they could, under any pretext, send them into port. But meeting with no success, and wearied with such an unprofitable pursuit, they swore they would make a prize of the next vessel they boarded, whatever she might be. The next vessel proved to be a brig, bound from Jamaica to Caraccas, laden with English goods. She had several passengers on board, and among them the wife of an Irish volunteer, who had made money in the Columbian service, and who had sent for her. After the passengers were rifled of their money and watches, they and the other crew were every one murdered in cold blood. The woman had with her a child about two years old. Never shall I forget her wailings. She fell on her knees to the villain who was sent to despatch her, "Oh! my dear, sweet, good gentlemen! spare my child—kill me, but spare my child." I recollected my mother, and stopt his arm. "Who are you?" said he, "and be d——d to you, that's for stopping an officer in his reg'lar duty." "Cluck her overboard," said another, and stop her d——d clash." "Aye do, Bill," says a third, "for we drowned just such another squalling b—— once, and it was the best cruise I ever made in my life."—Then, overboard she went, with the child in her arms. The poor creature all the while crying, "Save my child;" and while she was struggling in the waves, she still raised the little girl's head above water, and kept it so, at the length of her arm, after she was sinking. We took three other vessels. The manner in which we disposed of their crews has been in part told to the court; but the worst things were kept back, for they were done by the

witnesses themselves. But none of them, nor all of them together, had the effect on me, that was produced by the drowning of this woman and child.

At length, after a long chase, we were captured by an armed brig of the United States, and sent into Charleston, where three or four cowardly villains told enough to save themselves, and do for us. But if my advice had been taken, we would have baulked the rascals."—

The writer had got thus far in his manuscript, when I entered the little room which the jailor had provided for him. With the gloom which hung upon his countenance there was a sullenness which I had not perceived yesterday. He handed me the paper, remarking that, though unfinished, it contained all that was worth telling. After I had read his story, I inquired of him how he would have prevented any of his associates turning states' evidence. "I would have blown up the schooner, he quickly replied, as soon as I found we had no chance of escape, and all gone to the d—— together." Young man said I, it is better as it is. At least you ought to think so. I then told him that I was acquainted with some of his name in Boston, who, I thought, would interest themselves in his behalf. I remarked to him that although he had offended against the laws of Great Britain and Spain, he would be safe in this country, if he should be pardoned for the piracy, of which he had been convicted;—that culpable as he had been, according to his own confessions, there were extenuating circumstances which might operate in his favor; that he was yet young; might live to see and repent of his past errors, and become a useful member of society. "Never, never," said he; "my fate is fixed, and I am prepared to meet it." And in this state of sullen despair I left him.

Thus my dear C——; I have laid these painful details before you, without disguise or softening. I understand that the judge and attorney have not decided on the individuals they shall recommend to mercy; the representations of some of these villains not agreeing with the statement I have just given you; and many of our most soberminded men thinking that the execution of the whole crew (some in one town, and some in another,) is necessary for the protection of our citizens, and their

trude. I sincerely sympathize with you in this trying occasion, and hardly know how to advise, or what indeed to wish for you. I can only recommend to you to bear with equal mind whatever may ensue.

I am unfeignedly your friend,

P ———

Washington, Feb. 1821.

MY DEAR P.

I have read the narrative you sent me with intense interest. The President, finding, from the report of the evidence, that there was no sufficient ground for discriminating between the offenders and thinking it would be too little in harmony with the institutions of our country, or the feelings of its citizens, to have them all executed, has granted a pardon to all. I shall send a confidential agent to make the necessary communications to ———, and to conduct him to Vermont, where I shall endeavour to reclaim him to good habits: and, though late in the day, to do my duty by him. I am eternally obliged to you for your kind services in this perplexing affair, and I hope to have an opportunity of shewing you how truly I feel myself your

Obbliged Friend,

C ———

We are further told by our correspondent that the young man was carried to Vermont, where he passed as a distant relation of Mr. C——. Was sent to college, but that he made but moderate progress, though his capacity seemed good: that his father proposed to him the study of the law, which he tried awhile; and finding it altogether distasteful, he had then gone into a counting house. That he still continued listless and inactive. That being sent by his employer to Boston, when he came in sight of the harbour, he seemed to be inspired with new life. He took lodging near the water, went on board several vessels, and suddenly disappeared in a brig bound to Cuba, but whether to see his former mistress, or to join the pirates who still find a shelter in Matanzas, was not certainly known. The last however was deemed the most probable; and there is reason to believe that he was in a piratical vessel lately captured by one of our ships, and, that he is now in the United States. His father, whose newly awakened attachment became very strong, was most deeply mortified at this failure of all his hopes and

efforts, and never regained his cheerfulness. His health, which was not good before, became much worse, and he died about a year ago, leaving his estate to a distant relation, who has furnished the preceding details. Who does not, in reading them, feel the truth of this saying of the wise man.—“Train up a child in the way he should go: and when he is old he will not depart from it?”

Q

#### MACHINE FOR CUTTING CHEESE CURD!

The following specification of a patent, granted in May last, as contained in the *Journal of the Franklin Institute* for August—a “Journal” which, by the by, we can strongly recommend to our readers, exhibits an instance of the frivolous inventions which are continually made the subjects of a patent.

“For a machine for cutting cheese curd. Anson Morris, Henderson, Jefferson County, New York, May 2.

“A frame of wood is made so as to form the sides and ends of a shallow box, about ten inches square. This is divided into small squares of about seven sixteenths of an inch each, by putting in partitions of tin, placed edgewise, these edges forming the cutters. Upon this lattice work, the curd, divided into thin sheets, is to be placed: a lid, hinged to one end of the box, is then brought down, which presses the curd upon the cutters and divides it into small pieces.” p. 120.

#### SINGULAR EXPLOSION IN A STONE QUARRY.

A singular explosion occurred, a short time ago, in one of the extensive Quarries of Col. Geo. G. Leiper, of Delaware county, Pennsylvania, which supply the city of Philadelphia exclusively with curb stones. The Rock is Gneiss and consequently distinctly stratified. One of the workmen in the neighbourhood of the Quarry, when no blasting had taken place for some time, was astonished to hear a loud explosion, and on going to the place, when his alarm had ceased, he found that an immense mass of stone, several thousand tons in weight, had separated from the rest, leaving a considerable fissure between it and the portion whence it had separated: and, what is more strange, the *gisement* of the detached portion was towards the body of the rock, so that gravity could have had no in-



fluence. The only possible way of accounting for this phenomenon, and it is by no means satisfactory, seems to be, by supposing that the constant concussions occasioned by the blasting of the rocks, had loosened the union between the strata and that they became afterwards suddenly and explosively separated.

An explosion, if possible, still more unaccountable, is detailed in a late number of *Brewsters Edinburgh Journal of Science* (July 1829.) by White Watson, F. L. S. It occurred at Slickensides, a singular formation occurring in some perpendicular mineral veins, consisting of two imperceptible specular surfaces, joined together without cohesion: these are some times composed of a mixture of fluor, carbonate of lime, galena, blende &c: at others, the surfaces are thinly spread over with galena, as smooth and shining as if polished by art, and are then termed looking-glass ore: they are sometimes flat, at others waved; sometimes the waves, in the same specimen, are both perpendicular and horizontal: often in wedge-shaped nodular masses of various sizes, dispersed in the veins. When their edges occur in the face of the vein, on the miner striking his pick into the vein they separate, in some districts without, in others with, a slight report: and in some of the mines in the neighbourhood of Eyam in Derbyshire, with loud reports, particularly in Crack-hole vein, situated in the shell limestone, beneath the *shale* stratum; where, in the centre of the vein, a small white impalpable (not effervescing) powder called a *mallion* has been found, a quarter of an inch thick;—which, on being scratched, occasioned a loud explosion, announced by a singing kind of noise.

By setting a blast in the vein at a short distance from the mallion, a few minutes after the blast was fired an explosion took place, and a large quantity of the vein fell down.

In the year 1790, a loud explosion occurred; and, in 1815, another, which was the last great phenomenon of the kind. It has sometimes happened, that persons

have been maimed and even killed by this explosion—which is said never to have been noticed at Slickensides *where no shale is incumbent*. This shale is a mixture of clay and bitumen; and, perhaps, some gas is evolved from it, which under favorable atmospheric conditions becomes ignited and gives occasion to the explosion. These phenomena are, however, at present amongst the Arcana of Nature. a- RP.

#### STEAM COACHES.

The following extract from a late London "*Morning Chronicle*" shews, that the successful application of steam to carriages has at length been effected.

"On the same day that Mr. Gurney's steam-coach started for Bath, the steam-carriage invented by Mr. W. Hancock, of Stratford, near Bow, performed a journey of nearly twenty-five miles in the vicinity of the metropolis, going at the rate of eight miles an hour, to the astonishment of the inhabitants of the different towns and villages through which it passed. This carriage is on an improved principle, employing patent boilers capable of creating more steam, but with increased safety, from their peculiar construction and the solidity of their formation. The carriage started at an early hour in the morning from Turnham-green, and proceeded through Hounslow to Cranford-bridge, and then crossed into the Uxbridge-road, and was directed towards Ealing, going up Ealing-hill, without any obstruction, at the rate of five miles an hour; it thence proceeded through Bush-lane, and returned to town in the course of the afternoon." β

#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

*Students of the University.*—The following is a list of the students, who have entered this session. The number is above one fourth greater than at the same period of the last.

Meriwether L. Anderson, *Albemarle*.

John W. Bankhead, *Albemarle*.

David Barclay, *Richmond*.

William A. Baynham, *Essex*.

John M. Baynham, *Essex*.

Geo. P. Beirne, *Monroe*.

Thomas Bibb, *Alabama*.

T. W. Brevard, *South Carolina*.

- John F. Brockenbrough, *Tappahannock*.  
 William H. Brockenbrough, *University of Va.*  
 J. L. Cabell, *Nelson*.  
 James L. Carr, *Albemarle*.  
 John H. Carr, *Baltimore*.  
 William G. Carr, *Albemarle*.  
 John M. Chapinan, *Orange*.  
 Heath J. Christian, *New Kent*.  
 George Cobb, *Southampton*.  
 John H. Cochran, *Loudon*.  
 William B. Cochran, *Loudon*.  
 F. F. Conway, *University of Va.*  
 Abel S. Cunningham, *Hardy*.  
 Benjamin F. Dabney, *Gloucester*.  
 Ben. J. Darneille, *Albemarle*.  
 James H. Davis, *Albemarle*.  
 Marion Devenux, *South Carolina*.  
 John R. Edmunds, *Halifax*.  
 Willie J. Eppes, *Cumberland*.  
 John B. Garrett, *Albemarle*.  
 John W. Gilliam, *Brunswick*.  
 John H. Gilmer, *Albemarle*.  
 Carlos A. Gooch, *Albemarle*.  
 James L. Gordon, *Albemarle*.  
 Algeron S. Gray, *Rockingham*.  
 William F. Gray, *University of Va.*  
 John A. Grotter, *Richmond*.  
 J. B. Harvie, *Poehatan*.  
 A. Henderson, *North Carolina*.  
 James P. Henderson, *Nelson*.  
 W. M. Hite, *Frederick*.  
 Joseph B. Hobson, *Poehatan*.  
 John J. Hoskins, *King William*.  
 Warren G. Huie, *North Carolina*.  
 George W. Huston, *Shenandoah*.  
 Charles E. Johnson, *North Carolina*.  
 Geo. N. Johnson, *Richmond*.  
 James L. Jones, *Albemarle*.  
 Geo. R. King, *Louisiana*.  
 Franklin A. Kownslar, *Eckle'ey*.  
 Randolph Kownslar, *Berkeley*.  
 Benjamin W. Leigh, *Halifax*.  
 James A. Leitch, *Albemarle*.  
 Norborne W. Lewis, *Brunswick*.  
 John T. Lomax jr., *University of Va.*  
 Henry M. Marshall, *Frederick*.  
 Socrates Maupin, *Albemarle*.  
 Thomas S. McLelland, *Nelson*.  
 Daniel F. McMahon, *South Carolina*.  
 James A. Meriwether, *Lynchburg*.  
 Wm. N. Meriwether, *Lynchburg*.  
 Wm. J. Michie, *University of Va.*  
 Benjamin F. Minor, *Albemarle*.  
 Charles Minor, *Louisia*.  
 William W. Minor, *Albemarle*.  
 Daniel S. Morgan, *Richmond*.  
 Alexander Moseley, *Rockingham*.  
 B. T. Moseley, *University of Va.*
- Wm. B. Napton, *Albemarle*.  
 James F. Neal, *Mecklenburg*.  
 John S. Nicholas, *Buckingham*.  
 George Nicholson, *Sussex*.  
 C. J. Nixon, *South Carolina*.  
 Cary S. Page, *Winchester*.  
 Samuel A. Patteson, *Manchester*.  
 Thomas W. Peyre, *South Carolina*.  
 C. L. Perry, *Albemarle*.  
 Lilburn P. Perry, *Albemarle*.  
 William H. Perry, *Bedford*.  
 Zebulon M. P. Powers, *King and Queen*.  
 William B. Price, *Brunswick*.  
 Wm. M. Radford, *Lynchburg*.  
 Edwin H. Randolph, *Amelia*.  
 Robert Randolph, *Hanover*.  
 Marcus W. Reinhardt, *North Carolina*.  
 William W. Richeson, *University of Va.*  
 William F. Ritchie, *Richmond*.  
 John N. Rose jr., *University of Va.*  
 Erasmus T. Rose, *Alabama*.  
 Samuel H. Royal, *Poehatan*.  
 Anrelus Salle, *Chesterfield*.  
 Robert M. Saunders, *Henrico*.  
 Littleton Savage, *Richmond*.  
 Samuel Scott, *Buckingham*.  
 William C. Scott, *Poehatan*.  
 Alexander H. Sheppard, *Richmond*.  
 Jacob A. Smith, *Richmond*.  
 W. B. Smith, *Brunswick*.  
 Richard A. Springs, *South Carolina*.  
 Francis T. Stribling, *Staunton*.  
 George E. Tabb, *Gloucester*.  
 John Taylor, *Caroline*.  
 Creed Thomas, *Richmond*.  
 Charles S. Trueheart, *Poehatan*.  
 Thomas G. Tucker, *Brunswick*.  
 Philip Turpin, *Poehatan*.  
 Henry Tutwiler jr., *Harrisonburg*.  
 Peyton Tutwiler, *Rockingham*.  
 W. L. Underwood, *Kentucky*.  
 A. B. Urquhart, *Southampton*.  
 Joseph H. Vincent, *Lunenburg*.  
 Benjamin J. Walker, *Brunswick*.  
 Robert W. Walton, *Pensacola, Florida*.  
 Edward F. Watkins, *Albemarle*.  
 Egbert R. Watson, *Albemarle*.  
 John W. C. Watson, *Albemarle*.  
 Overton D. Watson, *Albemarle*.  
 Shelton Watson, *Louisia*.  
 Fleming T. Wells, *Albemarle*.  
 Cary S. Wickham, *Richmond*.  
 John Willis, *Orange*.  
 William P. Winfree, *Manchester*.  
 Benjamin B. Winn, *Albemarle*.  
 Thomas Wood, *Albemarle*.  
 A. G. Wortham, *Richmond*.

# VIRGINIA LITERARY MUSEUM

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## ENGLISH PROVINCIALISMS.—No. 5.

"Collections of provincial dialects would often have been extremely useful; many words esteemed peculiar to certain counties being remnants of the language formerly in general use."

NARES.

### ON THE DIALECTS OF THE NORTH OF ENGLAND.

#### *Dialect of Yorkshire.*

The dialect of Yorkshire strongly resembles that of Cumberland; but is even more difficult of comprehension to the natives of the South of England or to those who speak the English language correctly. These remarks apply, particularly, to that of the Deanery of Craven, in the West Riding of the county of York.

Within the last few years a native of Craven has published a small volume—entitled "*Howe Momena Cravena*," or the Craven Dialect exemplified in two dialogues between Farmer Giles and his neighbour Bridget."—"Anxious" he remarks, "to hand it (the dialect) down to posterity, unadulterated—the author has attempted to express, in a familiar dialogue, the chaste and nervous language of its unlettered natives." From his first dialogue we extract the following specimen, at random, as an example of this, if not "chaste and nervous," at all events, antient, provincial language, modified, of necessity, in its orthoepy and orthography, since the period at which it was more general.

Giles. Good mornin to the, Bridget, how isto?

Bridget. Deftly 1 as ent, 2 and as cobby 3 as a lop, 4 thanks to.

Giles. Wha, marry, thou looks i gay good fettle. 5

Brid. What thinksto o't weather? Awr house

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is varra unrid 6 and grimy, t'chimla smudges 7 an reeks 8 seen, an mackst' reckon, 9 at used to shimmer 10 and glissen, nowght bud soote an muck.

Giles. It's now a vara lütke 11 day, bud there war a girt roak. 12 an a rag, 13 o 't fells 14 at delleet, an it looked seaful heavisome.

Brid. I oft think a donky, 15 mistin, 16 deggy 17 mornin is a sign o't pride o't' weather, for it oft scorsels 18 up, an is maar to be liked ner t'element full o'thunner packs er a breet, scaumy 19 sky.

Giles. Wha, when't bent's 20 snod, 21 hask 22 cranchin 23 an sloap, 24 it's a strang sign of a pash. 25

Brid. I've oft obsarved there hes been a down-faw soon efter; bud for sure, I cannot gaum 26 much be ouer chimla at prisent, its seen smoor-ed 27 up wi mull 28 an brash. 29. Yesterday about noon, t'summer goost 30 flackered 31 at naya lile rate, an t'element, at edge o'dark, wor seaful full of filly tails 32 an hen scrattins. 33 Thou knows that's a sartain sign ov a change. sometimes I've knaan it sile 34 and teem 35 efter."

1. *Deftly*. Pretty well—also neat, clever, &c.

"He said I were a *deft* lass."

BROME'S *Northern Lass*.

It is an old English word from Saxon, *daft*, proper &c.

2. *Out*. Aught, any thing.

3. *Cobby*. The derivation of this word is not clear—in this passage it means *well* or in good spirits perhaps from German *kopf*, head—and in Northumberland and Derbyshire it has the same signification; but in Cumberland it is more frequently employed in the sense of headstrong, tyrannical.

4. *Lop*. A flea—pure Saxon, *Loppe*.

5. *Gay good fettle*. Pretty good condi-

tion—*Fettle* is used in this sense over the whole of the North of England and in Scotland. It is thus also employed by Roger Ascham in his *Torophilus*.

6. *Unrid*. Untidy, disorderly, filthy. Belg. *onraedt*, dirty.

7. *Smudges*. Smokes, Germ. *Schmutzen* to soil, dirt.

8. *Reeks*. Smokes, from Sax. *recan*: It is Scotch and also good old English, being used by Shakspeare.

9. *Reckon*. A sort of crane or crook, over the fire, to support boilers, exposed to smoke—quasi, *reek-on*. In some parts of the North of England it is called *recking-crook*.

10. *Shimmer* or *skimmer*, to shine or glitter. Germ. *schimmern*, to glitter.

11. *Lithe*. Mild, blythe. Sax. *hlithe*, tranquil.

12. *Roak*—Mist, this is from the same root as reek. In some parts of the North of England it is called *rook* and *rouk*.

13. *Rag*. A mist, is also from the same root. In Scotland it is termed *rak*, *raik*, *roik* and *rook*. *Rack of the weather* signifies the track in which the clouds move; in the South of England *rak* denotes both the thin white clouds, which are scarcely visible and their motion.

14. *Fells*. Mountains, chiefly rocky mountains. This is old English and is used by Ben Jonson. Germ. *Fels*, a rock.

15. *Donky*. Dark, wet, from Suio-Gothic *dunk-en*, wet. In Scotland *donk* is employed in similar expressions.

"The dolly dikis war al *donk* and wate"

DOUGLAS'S *Virgil*.

16. *Mislin*. Mizzling, small rain falling. And *mizzle*, small rain. The substantive is in Todd's Johnson: it is strange that the verb, which is much more frequently used, should not be there likewise.

17. *Deggy*. Foggy, and *deg*, to moisten with water, are common in the North of England, perhaps from Saxon *deagan*, to moisten or sprinkle.

18. *Worsels*. Wrestles. Belg. *worstelen*.

19. *Scaumy*. Clear, gaudy. Sax. *scamian*.

20. *Bent*. A coarse kind of grass. Germ. *binse* a rush, from *binden* to bind, like the Lat. *juncus* from *jungere*, to join.

21. *Snod*. Smooth, perhaps from Lat. *sine nodo*, without a knot; or from Sax. *sni-dan*, to cut.

22. *Hask*. Coarse, harsh, rough, parch-

ed. This is by the native of Craven, and also by Brockett, in his "Glossary of North Country words," wildly supposed to come from Lat. *hiscere* to chap &c. The word is precisely identical with the English *harsh* and Scotch *harsk*, and is of Teutonic origin—Germ. and Belg. *harsch*, harsh, coarse &c.

23. *Cranching*, *crackling*. The same Teutonic origin as the English *cranching*.

24. *Slaap*. Slippery—a corruption.

25. *Pash*. A fall of rain or snow. It is also used to signify any violent fall. "I fell wi' sike a pash." Perhaps the same as the old English word *pash*, to death with violence.

26. *Gaum*. To know, distinguish. Moes. Goth. *gaunigan*.

27. *Smooored*. Smothered. Sax. *smoran*.

28. *Mull*. Dirt, rubbish, crumbs. From Su. Goth. *mull*. The fragments and dust of peats are called *peat-mull*, and oaten bread, broken into crumbs, is called *mulled* bread. It is an old English word.

29. *Brash*. Twigs, probably the same as the old English *brush*, still used in this state.

30. *Summer goose*. Gossamer, the down of plants, cobwebs, vapour arising from boggy or marshy ground, in warm weather. An inquiry into provincialisms has thrown great light on the etymology of this word. Dr. Johnson derived it from Lat. *gossipium*, cotton; and between this Latin and the French *gossampine*—the cotton tree of India—Etymologists have varied. The etymon by the native of Craven is decidedly the most satisfactory. In the West Riding of Yorkshire, this down or, rather, exhalation is well known by the name, *summer goose* or *summer gauze*, whence "*gauze of the summer*" *gauzamer* and *gossamer*.

31. *Flackered*. Fluttered. Germ. *flackern*, to flare. *Flicker* is used by Chaucer and Shakspeare.

32. *Filly tails*. Mare's tails, the variety of cloud called, by meteorologists, *cirrus*, which denotes wind.

33. *Hen scrattins* or hen scratchings, are small and circular white clouds, of the same character.

"Whene'er ye spy hen *scratts* and *filly tails*,  
Be sure ye mind to lower your top sails."

34. *Sile*. To pour down with rain. It is also used for "to strain" from Su. Goth. *sila* to strain.

35. *Teem*. To pour. This is English.  
Isl. *laema* to empty.

"*Teem* out the tea *hinny*."

#### DIALECT OF LANCASHIRE.

Perhaps the earliest essay on any of the provincialisms of England is a "View of the Lancashire dialect by way of dialogue: between *Tunmus o' Williams*, of *Margil o' Roofs*, and *Meary o' Dicks*, o' *Tunmy o' Peggy's*: containing the adventures and misfortunes of a Lancashire Clown." By Tim Bobbin Esq.

This was the production of a Mr. John Collier of Warrington in Lancashire, a man of considerable humour and talent, but somewhat eccentric.

The dialect of Lancashire strongly resembles that of the other more northern counties in its etymology; but the pronunciation differs materially. In some parts, *a* is sounded for *o* and *o* for *a*, for example, they say *far* for *for*; *shart* for *short*; and, again, *hort* for *heart*; and *port* for *part*; *hont* for *hand* &c.

*Al* and *all* are generally sounded broad, as *aw* (or *o*) for *all*; *haw* (or *ho*) for *hall*; *Aweemety* for *Almighty*; *awlus*, for *always* &c.

In some places *k* is sounded for *g* and this prevails in many of the counties, as in Derbyshire: *thing* being pronounced *think*; *woeing*, *wooink* &c.

*D*, at the end of words and the termination *ed* are often changed to *t*: as *behint* for *behind*; *awkert* for *awkward*; *awtert* for *altered* &c.

In some parts *ou* and *ow* are pronounced like *a*: as *tha* for *thou*; *ka* for *cow*. In other places the *ou* and *ow* are sounded as *ea*; as *theaw* for *thou*, *keaw* for *cow*; *heawse* for *house*; *meawse* for *mouse*.

The Saxon termination *en* is generally retained as *ha'n*, *lov'n*, &c.

In general, the Lancastrians speak quick and short: and cut off many letters and even words by apostrophes, sometimes sounding two, three or more words as one. For instance they say, *I'll got* for *I'll go to*; *run!* for *run to*; *hoosl* for *she shall*; *intle* for *if thou wilt*; *I wou'didd'n* for *I wish you would* &c.

This poem, with the subjoined glossary, will render intelligible the following extract from the work to which we have alluded.

32\*

#### *Tunmus and Meary.*

*Tun*. Odds me, *Meary*! whooa the dickons wou'd o' thowt o' leeting o' thee here so soyne this morning? Where has to bin? Theaw'r't au on a swat, I think; for theau looks primely.

*Mea*. Beleemy *Tunmus*, I *welly* I lost my wynt; for I've had sitch o'traunce 2 teis morning as eh neer had e' meh live: for I went to *Jone's o' Harry's* 3 o' lung *Jone's*, for't to borrow their *thible*, 4 to stur th' furmety web, an his wife had lent it to *Bet o' my gronny's*: so I *skearct* 5 *end-way*, 6 an when eh coom there, hoo'd lent it *Kester o' Dick's*, an the *dule stravend* 7 'in for a brindl'tur, he'd mede it int' shoon pegs! Neaw wou'd naw sitch o' moon-shine traunce *potter* 8 any body's *pluck*? 9

*Tun*. Mark whot e tell the *Meary*: for I think lunger of fok liv'n an'th' moor mischoances they han.

*Mea*. Notawlus o' *goddil*. 10 But what *meys* 11 o't *sorgh*, 12 on seem so dane-kest? For I can tell o' I'd fene see o' *wick* 13 an hearty.

*Tun*. Whick an hearty too! odd zo, but I can tell the whot, its moor in bargain of Im oather wick or hearty, for 'twar *seign* 14 peawnd t'a tuppunny *jannock*, 15 I'd bin as deed as a dur nele be this awer: for th' *last oandurth* 16 boh one me measter had lik't o' killt meh: on just neaw, os shure as thee and me ar stonning here, I'm actilly running meh country.

*Mea*. Why, whot's bin th' matter, hanney fawn eawt withur weaster?

*Tun*. Whot! there's bin moort' do in a gon-nort muck, I'll uphowd tey! For what dust think? bo'th 'tother day boh yesterday, huz lads noot'n ha' o' bit on o' hallidey (becose it wurth' circumcision onner ledey I believe) yet we munt do some odds-on-eends: or I munt oather breed *nowdywarp-hotes* 17 or gut' *Ratchdaw* weh o' keaw on o' *why-kawce* 18 neaw, *loothy* 19 *Meary*, I'r *lither*: 20 on had a mind on o' jawnt: so I donn'd meh *sundey jump* 21 o' top o' meh *sin-glet*, 22 on wou'd goa with keaw on th' *kawwe*; and the dule tey aw bad luck far me, far eawer bitch *Nip* went wimmen, on that mede *ill teurr*." 23

1. *Welly* or *well-ney*. Well nigh.

2. *Traunce*. A tedious journey.

3. *Jones' o' Harry's*. John Harris's. This old mode of distinction is kept up in Lancashire: In the northern counties, indeed, individuals are generally designated by their christian names: and the father's name is only added when there are several of the same christian name in the neigh-

bourhood. *Tummus o' Williams, o' Margit o' Roaphs*, is Thomas of Williams' of Margaret of Ralph's.

4. *Thible*. This instrument, also called *slice*, is a thin piece of wood to stir meat in pots, meal in porridge &c. *Thible* or *thirle* is used in all the northern counties and is probably derived from Anglo Saxon *thyfel*, a stem or stalk.

"He's a *queer stick* to make a *thirle* of" is a common proverb in Cumberland: as applied to a strange fellow. The word is in Todd's Johnson.

5. *Skenvert*. Scoured, made haste.

6. *Eend-ways*. Endways, forward.

7. *Dule astaeven'd*. The devil astound; an aspiration.

8. *Potter*. Bother, vex.

9. *Plucks*. The word *pluck*, as applied to the heart, liver and lights collectively, is English. *Plucks* here means the lungs.

10. *Goddil*. God's will.

11. *Meys*. Makes.

12. *Sowgh*. Sigh.

13. *Wick* and *wick* are used over the north for *quick*.

14. *Seign*. Seven.

15. *Jannock*. Oaten bread made into great loaves. This word seems, likewise, to be used in Scotland.

"*Mattie* gao us baith a drap skimmed milk, and ano o' her thick ait *jannocks*, that was as wat as raw as a divot."—*Rob Roy*.

16. *Oandarth*. Afternoon.

17. *Mowdywarp-holes*. Holes made by the mole. In the North of England and in Scotland, the words *mowdeyarp*, *moudy*, and *mouly* are all applied to the mole. *Mowdywarp* is Saxon, from the words *mold* earth and *weorpan*, to cast up. *Verstegan*, under the word *awarpen*, says:—"We call, in some parts of England, a mole a *mould warp*, which is as much as to say a cast-earth." The word occurs in Shakespeare, Spencer and other older writers.

18. *Why-kareve*. A female calf. The same as *heifer*. In Scotland the words *quey*, *quy*, *quoy*, *quyach*, *queock*, *quyok* have the same meaning. They are perhaps of Scandinavian origin, *quie*, in the Danish, having a similar signification:

"Ten lambs at spaining time as lang's I live,  
"And twa *quey caufs* I'll yearly to them give.

ALLAN RAMSAY.

19. *Looty*. Look thee.

20. *Lither*. More calm. A common

word in the north, as we have seen, from Anglo Saxon *hlithe*, tranquil.

21. *Jump*. This word here signifies a coat, but it has various meanings in the other northern counties. In Yorkshire it is applied to a child's leather frock: and, in other counties, to a kind of easy stays: In Scotland, *jupe*, which is probably the same word, means a kind of short mantle or cloak or a woman; it is employed, likewise, for a great coat, a bedgown and a piece of flannel used instead of stays. They all probably, come, immediately from the French *jupe*, a petticoat, a shepherd's frock, a long coat."

22. *Singlet*. An undyed woollen waistcoat.

23. *Wurr*. Worse.

The dialects of England will be concluded in the next communication, which will comprise those of Keltish origin.

*See page 261.*

*R. G.*

#### SCIENTIFIC EXPEDITION IN GREECE.

The members of the French scientific commission are all engaged in excursions. Colonel Bory St. Vincent, accompanied by four of his colleagues, Messrs. Virlet, Baccuet, De Launay, and Brule, has succeeded in travelling through Maina, where he was very well received by all the chiefs. He took advantage of these favourable circumstances to ascend Mount Taygetus, which had never before been done by any known traveller. These gentlemen, after four days' extreme fatigue, and in spite of the snows with which Taygetus is still covered, reached the summit, and were able correctly to measure the highest mountain in the Morea. They are at present in the heart of Arcadia; and have measured Mount Lyceus and the ancient Cotylus. Messrs. Blouet, Dubois, and Amaury Duval, with their assistants, are at Olympia, where some excavations have afforded them very satisfactory results. They have discovered a temple, which they suppose to be that of the Olympian Jupiter. The length of this monument appears to be two hundred and forty feet; the columns are twenty-one feet in circumference. M. Baroisier, one of the members of the section of architecture, went sometime ago, to Modon to ask of General Schneider for a supply of tools, to be able to continue, with more activity, the interesting excavations which they intend to make.

## WOLDEMAR.

A TALE FROM THE ITALIAN CAMPAIGN  
OF 1805.\**Quis talia fando temperet a lachrymis?—*VIRGIL, *ÆN.* II.

Who can relate such woes without a tear?

DRYDEN.

Woldemar to his friend Gustavus.

M. . . . June 17, 1805.

Still, dear Gustavus! we remain peacefully before the enemy; I cannot comprehend the ground of this eternal delay. The whole army is longing for the contest and all detest, with me, this wearisome state of repose, which unbends the mind so considerably. According to all appearances we shall continue to lie thus still longer, and our hope, of soon coming to close fight with the French, may remain, for a long time, unaccomplished. Tomorrow, I go with my regiment, to lie two leagues in advance, at Villarosa. They envy me this change, as it is said to be a most agreeable residence. It belongs to the Count P——, who has likewise considerable possessions in the Tyrol, where thou surely hast heard of him; he is said to live here in the enjoyment of fair nature and of his family, who, as well as he, are extolled by all. It is not to be denied, that we first learn, in these rude associations of war, to appreciate correctly the happiness of coming amongst cultivated individuals; but such occurrences are still only transitory and I would rather go tomorrow to the fight, than continue to live still longer in this intolerable state of repose. That I am compelled thus to tread the country, which was the object of my dreams! that I must even, with rude bloody hands, assist in driving away fair peace from this sacred soil, wounds me deeply. I had hoped to tread those frontiers under other circumstances! But I am now a soldier and a soldier from my own choice, from pure love and desire for combat, and such feelings do not suit this climate—do not suit this nature, where

\* From the German of Theodore Koerner. See *Museum* p. 94.

every thing, even, in spite of the storms of the time, prevails in such luxurious plenitude. Oh! thou shouldst see it; my magnificent Italy! how it glitters and blooms. Who would enter here at the head of a victorious army?

Villarosa, July 21.

I write to thee from Villarosa, from this paradise of nature. My friend! envy me, envy me, every hour which I may pass in this place. What a circle of exalted individuals! thou shouldst see Magdalena, the lofty, noble, form with the large, dark eyes and the luxuriant golden tresses; thou shouldst hear the harmony of their voices, those intonations of superior life; and thou wouldst forget, like myself, both war and the war-cry. The calm melancholy, the delicate traces of some deep affliction, which mantle around the soft countenance of the lovely one, like a holy splendor, and the expression of the deepest love, which emanates from her eyes, communicate to her something infinitely, inexpressibly, charming. Oh! that I could describe the divine one! that I could point out to thee every sentiment, which impresses my full heart in this sweet intoxication! but I observe that I have as yet, properly, described to thee nothing. Know, then, Magdalena is the daughter of the Count to whom Villarosa belongs. They have received me here in a manner which could not have been excused by that of the oldest friend—with so much cordiality and goodness, that I cannot, my brother! comprehend my own good fortune; and now, I live with her under the same roof; am almost always near her; accompany her on the guitar when she sings her native canzonets, those sweet songs of love and sadness. She conducts me through the magnificent environs of the Villa, and participates so cordially in my raptures at this earthly paradise. Oh! she is an angel, a being full of lofty infinite tenderness; how I find every impulse of my soul altered; I feel that her vicinity ennobles me. I am happy, if I can but see her! I am the most fortunate of individuals!

Villarosa, July 23.

God be praised ! we yet hear nothing of breaking up. I hope the armies may yet lie, some weeks longer, peaceably opposite each other—that I may not quit my heaven. Never could I have believed that love could have so completely changed me ! once, an eternal, burning desire impelled me into the misty distance ; all my delight lay in the future, and life, with gloomy tones, jogged on without interest to me. But, now ! all my impulses have become expanded ; in her sacred vicinity the wild tempest of the soul is lost in sweet melancholy. The present encircles me with all its joys ; and, from the breath of love, resound deep within me the chords of a higher existence. With what kindness do they treat me ! no one will suffer me to tell how troublesome, how disagreeable to them, I must necessarily be, in my present circumstances. What a noble family they are ! the father, with his tranquil look, amidst the storms of the time ; with a figure commanding the highest—the most sincere, veneration ; and the mother, who lives only in the circle of her family, and bestows on them all so much cordial, elevated affection ! ay ! and Magdalena ! Magdalena ! he has not felt what there is holy and divine in life, who has not seen, in her angel eyes, the glow of a higher degree of perfection, who has not bent his knee, in deep beatitude, before this pure one.

Villarosa, July 25.

She has a brother, whom she loves, in an extraordinary degree ; he has absconded in consequence of a duel, and they have no certain accounts of his present residence. This is the cause of her melancholy ; for she feels for this brother a love, a tenderness, wholly peculiar to her fair heart. How she relates this to me with all the expression of a heartfelt, deep affliction ! how the tears rush into her eyes. I cannot tell thee how her narrative has affected me. There is probably no circumstance in the whole of human life, where tenderness and elevation of soul could be expressed more significantly, than in affliction, and

it is impossible for it not to acquire something more pathetic and animating, from the bright tears in the beautiful eyes of such a maiden. This I said to her and she felt I was not merely desirous of flattering her. She gently pressed me, with the hand which I had seized in my animation, rose quickly and said, whilst hastening away, "I believe, Woldemar, thou art a good man." Thou canst not imagine the heavenly tones of those words ! long I stood, chained to the earth, looking after her. I then cast myself upon the ground and kissed the grass which had been pressed by her light footsteps. Thou wilt call me a child, Gustavus ! yes, I probably am so, but a happy one. In the evening, I lie at my window so long as I can see her light ; for as she dwells on the right and I on the left wing of the Villa, I can easily see her chamber. Thus I often remain, for hours, observing the flare of the light until it is extinguished. Then I take my guitar and waste my amorous plaints, in the serene moonlight, which under the Italian sky rests in divine tranquillity on the earth. Canst thou well comprehend the extreme brightness which then floats around me ? hast thou an idea in thy breast of those delights ? Gustavus ! Gustavus, I had never anticipated them.

Villarosa, July 26.

Oh ! that I could but fly into thy arms—that I could shed tears on thy fraternal bosom, at this powerful, infinite delight. That I must bear alone this excess of ardent joys ! My poor heart cannot withstand the price of this high feeling—it must break. Gustavus ! she is mine ! from her quivering lips has faltered the confession of her love ;—she lay on my breast and I dared to impress glowing kisses on her lips. We sat silent, and wrapt in delicious dreams on the terrace. The sun was descending behind the mountains ; and, a troop of our cavalry was passing in the distance—whose glittering arms were gilded by the departing rays. Then spoke within me as it were the voice of a spirit—"Thou returnest not home !" and deep melancholy overpowered me. Magdalena soon no-



ticed my feeling, and sympathizingly asked "what was the matter?" I told her my anticipation. "Would she bestow a tear on me? I sat nearer to her and seized her hand. She trembled violently; and tenderly regarded me with tears in her eyes. I could contain myself no longer, but fell at her feet. "Magdalena" cried I "I cannot conceal it—I love thee," she sank, trembling, into my arms and our lips sealed the sacred bond. And when at length we recovered from the glowing transports of our souls—how did I then feel! twilight enveloped the earth, and, the world lay in sweet slumber, but in my breast glowed an eternal day: the morning of my happiness had dawned. And how otherwise was now my Magdalena! she stood even more beautiful before me: the spirit of a superior existence circled around her, the expression of propitious love floated upon her countenance like the Nimbus of the Holy One. At first she was to me the accomplished maiden; now she stood before me like the seraph of a better world—the timid maidenly character had, in the consciousness of eternal love, become converted into a holy confidence in her mental qualifications. As yet I have not spoken to the parents, but I trust they will not annihilate our happiness. They feel for Magdalena so much tenderness, that they certainly will not cloud her heaven. Gustavus! if thou hast never experienced those happy moments, when love involves two hearts in glowing transports, and dips them into the highest earthly happiness; if the heavenly words,—“I love thee,” have never been addressed to thee from beloved lips—thou canst not comprehend the infinity of feeling, of this godlike feeling of propitious love.

Villaroa, the 1st. of August.

Share, with me, my happiness—dear Gustavus! she is mine, mine by the voice of her own heart, mine by the word of her parents. They have nothing to say against me; they adopt me—the stranger—into the fair circle of their love—Noble, excellent, individuals!

Does not every thing combine to ac-

complish my most ardent wishes, even before I hazard them? Does not every thing, in this powerful storm of the times amicably cooperate to fix peace firmly in my breast?

I have unfolded all my circumstances to them—how I only entered this campaign, with others, from a disgraceful thirst for combat—how I should take my departure after the termination of the same, sell my possessions in Bohemia and return to my happy Italy, to live, then, only for Magdalena, and the interesting duties of filial love. I told them all; and they felt that I at least would not make Magdalena unhappy. I was compelled however to urge a speedy decision, as I every moment expected an order to decamp; at length they gave us their blessing and the highest earthly happiness pervaded the breasts of four fortunate individuals. "Gustavus!"—the father of Magdalena said, as he led her to me—"Take her—the joy of my life—and make her happy;" when she sank into my arms and the kiss of the bond, in the sacred vicinity of the parents, glowed on our lips. I now fell into a state of more elevated and infinite delight—all the angels of heaven seemed to soar into my soul and transplanted thither an enchanting Eden. Ardently did I revel in the fulness of my ideas, which now bloomed in fairer activity in the circle of my life. Gustavus! I am not equal to this happiness.

Villaroa.

Friend! what paradisiac days I now pass in the family circle of my love! Father and mother seek every means to testify their heartfelt attachment to their new son; and Magdalena lives but for me. We are together the whole day, and I observe my sweet maiden develope, more and more, the charms of her fair and noble heart. Of her music I have already spoken to thee; she cordially rejoices at the idea of our practising in full concert, when brother Camillo returns. Camillo is said to sing a beautiful, powerful, tenor; so that we could, even now, execute many trios. I feel great curiosity respecting my brother-in-law. They all

dwelt upon him, with so much love that it necessarily disquiets them, if reminded of his absence; and this can scarcely be avoided, as there is every where some point of contact between him and them—every where they miss him.

They speak so favorably of Camillo, that he must be very meritorious; I picture him to myself as a gallant youth, full of spirit, determination and energy; strong in mind and body—a youthful, proud Athlete.

Besides singing and playing, Magdalena also draws admirably. It is a source of endless gratification to her to attempt sketches from historical subjects, and she has thereby acquired, in the mechanical part, considerable dexterity. A short time ago, she drew the scene in which Horatia sees her brother as the conqueror and murderer of her beloved. In the expression of the maiden's countenance, where the contest between her inmost feelings is so manifestly visible, she has succeeded most admirably. The drawing has seriously affected me: and the simple forms have made a deep impression on me. Thou shouldst have heard how beautifully she spoke regarding the subject of the sketch, and how she could imagine herself so easily to be in Horatia's situation. She complained not of the murder of her betrothed—she complained of the hardness of fate, for her brother was compelled to conquer as a Roman; and it was not Horatius, no! it was Rome, that struck the sword into the breast of her beloved. Magdalena is now preparing for me, from memory, a portrait of her brother. The old people say it will be an admirable likeness—so accurately does she bear in her mind the remembrance of him. I shall not be permitted to see it until it is finished.—Gustavus! what an eternal series of fair, of heavenly joys and feasts of love is to be my future lot. How will my sweet, lovely maiden, with all her splendid talents, ennoble our friendly circle. Days shall I live, which I would not barter for any treasures in the world. It is a happy feeling, when out of the storms of the sea [the ship drives with

full sails into the secure harbour, when with the anticipation of the highest earthly happiness we fly towards the fair Aurora of love. Gustavus, my day begins to dawn.

Villarosa, the 4th. of August.

What I have long dreaded, is come to pass! I must march, I must quit my sweet Magdalena. This day, at an early hour, I received orders to march back two leagues, tomorrow at daybreak. The enemy is said to advance nearer and we shall probably await him in an advantageous situation on the heights of C—. The whole war on which I formerly dwelt with so much animation is now insupportable. The thought, that I may lose Magdalena, makes me shudder to the depth of my soul, and a sinister foreboding mixes with my dreams. If we did but proceed forwards—but backwards, where I then know that Villarosa and every thing which is dearest to me on earth is in the enemy's power, it will make me mad. I am not one of the strong minds that can bear every thing; I can hazard all, but to attain my object through suffering, there my energy fails me. How detested will every moment be to me, in which I cannot see my sweet, charming maiden, not press her to my beating heart. I am no longer the same Woldemar. Scarcely do I feel courage in me to support the torments of separation. Before this presentiment of anguish the proud consciousness of manly courage gives way.

Riccardino the 7th. of August.

Let me be silent, Gustavus, on the hour of parting, let me be silent respecting the tears of Magdalena, my own torments, and her last kisses.

I obeyed orders and have been now for three days in Riccardino. It has been a sweet consolation to me, that I can see my beloved Villarosa, from a window of my new quarters—Villarosa where my charmer resides. At this window I lie constantly looking towards it, and endless desire makes me almost break my heart. Every thing is yet so void about me; even the loud tumult of war—for it is active around us and several

regiments lie here together—remains without interest to me. I have now only one sentiment, an ardent, powerful, sentiment, which could courageously break all bounds! Magdalena! how endless is my love, I know not how I can live without thee."

Two hours later.

Gustavus! my sinister foreboding rages terrifically within me, proceeds towards its accomplishment. The general assembled us and ordered the volunteers to storm Villarosa. The enemy have taken possession of it and appear desirous of fortifying themselves on the height. Thou wilt easily imagine that I was the first to step forward. I shall free my dear Magdalena from the power of the enemy; what a godlike feeling for me; but I shall cause bloodshed on those peaceful floors, and shall assist in the destruction of that fair world, to which she is attached with so much cordial love; can I do that? ought I to do it? oh! contest of duty! yet in every case must I undertake the enterprize, as I can more readily afford assistance. It will be sharp work. The enemy is said to be pretty strong, and my detachment is small; it may, particularly, require active individuals and the general can only spare few, as great events are hourly expected: may God protect me! duty and love call me—bloodily shall I purchase my good fortune.

Thus far the letters of Woldemar.

In a formidable humour he quickly ascended, with his valiant troops, to Villarosa. Even, from a distance, they descried the enemy's posts, and—ere Woldemar, as was his plan, could reach unobserved the neighbourhood of the Villa, by ways, through the cypress groves, well known to him—the enemy's corps advanced courageously against him, having either already observed him or his plan having been betrayed to them. The fight commenced, and, they soon came to close quarters, for when the troops of Woldemar knew that they fought for a bride for their chief, they eagerly press-

ed on the enemy. Amongst those of the French officers, who fought most courageously was a youth of lofty, noble, figure; several times were Woldemar and he opposed in fight, but they were as often separated. At length the enemy could no longer withstand the violent pressure of the valiant troops, they threw themselves into the Chateau, and the officer defended the entrance with more courageous despair, than if it were the most valuable possession of his life. When at length Woldemar rushed upon him, with all his force, he was compelled to give way; the troops pressed into the Villa and Woldemar pursued his obstinate opponent from chamber to chamber, in each of which a fresh contest began. Woldemar called to him to surrender, but in vain; instead of an answer he fought only the more furiously. Both already bled from numerous wounds, when Woldemar heard the voice of Magdalena in the neighbourhood; he now collected his best energies and his opponent sank to the ground, pierced by his sword. At this instant Magdalena, with her father, rushed, shrieking, into the chamber and exclaiming "brother unfortunate brother!" sank senseless near the fallen individual. Horrible despair now convulsed Woldemar, and he stood as if annihilated, crushed by the bloody thought of a brother's murder—At length Magdalena recovered, with the assistance of the assembled people; her first look fell on Woldemar, on the bloody sword and she sank again lifeless on her brother's body. They bore her away; and the father, who hitherto had stood in deathlike torpor, followed in silence. Woldemar remained alone, with the heartrending reflection that he had destroyed the happiness of the noblest of individuals. He heard not, when they brought him intelligence that the rest of the enemy were partly killed, partly taken prisoners; the overwhelming feeling alone possessed him, and he resigned himself to his affliction, to his despair. At length the Count appeared; he was now collected and still offered his hand to the murderer of his son. Woldemar sank, overpowered by

feelings, at his feet and bathed his hand with tears. But the noble old man pressed him to his breast; both wept aloud, and their manly hearts were convulsed with great, with unbounded affliction.

When, at last, the Count had become again collected, he related to Woldemar, how his son, Camillo, after he had decamped on account of the duel, had entered into the service of the French army, and, a few days before, had taken them by surprise. He mentioned also how Magdalena had spoken to her beloved brother of her Woldemar, and how he rejoiced at the prospect of becoming acquainted and of loving the friend of his sister. Woldemar's heart was racked to pieces by this intelligence! he raved terrifically and the Count was compelled to wrest the sword from his hand, with which he sought to put an end to his anguish. And now both became attentive, in the most painful degree, to the rapid passing to and fro of domestics; for they anticipated, with justice, a fresh misfortune. Magdalena, whose tenderly formed nerves had been too violently attacked by these dreadful scenes, also lay at the point of death. Woldemar's despair was now at the utmost: he conjured the Count to let him but once again see Magdalena, or he would execrate himself and his fate from the depth of his soul: he threw himself at his feet, and deeply agitated, the afflicted father left the room, not to refuse the unhappy one a last request. Magdalena, whose heart yet contended between love and abhorrence, was persuaded with difficulty to again see the murderer of her brother, but her noble soul, so near its glorification, overcame *infinite* affliction, vanquished by *infinite* love. Respecting that interview the fragment of a letter by Woldemar to Gustavus was found which was as follows.

"Gustavus! I am annihilated: I have destroyed the happiness of three angels: bloodshed lies heavily on me and despair burns in my veins. Gustavus! execrate me! terrifically rage in me the images of past time: they will make me raving;

insane am I already. Yet once have I seen her, that holy one! whose heaven I have ruined; yet once did she regard me with all the expression of her former love and softly spake;—"Woldemar! I forgive thee." This crushed me to the inmost. I sank down at her feet, when she raised herself with her last energies to draw me to her faithful breast and sank dead in my arms. Gustavus! Gustavus! I rush after her: my despair forces me on. She has forgiven me, the charming, heavenly being! but I—forgive not myself: I must be sacrificed, and only by blood, by my blood, can I wash the guilt from my heart. Live happily! I ought not to contend with my fate. I have even murdered my own joys. Live on! thou faithful, fraternal soul! God is merciful, he will suffer me to die!"

His last wish was granted. That small contest was the prelude to a decisive battle; and the day afterwards saw the two armies in fearful contention. Woldemar fought with desperation: he rushed deep into the enemy's ranks, sought death and found it. Pierced by innumerable bayonets he sank in the thickest of the fight; and his last word was Magdalena. All who knew him mourned in him a faithful friend, a valiant comrade and a noble man. He was buried in the family tomb at Villarsosa, near Magdalena. Rest to his ashes!

## EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.—

No. 2.

(Continued from page 253.)

### MECHANICS INSTITUTES. &c.

The history of the lectures given to adult workmen, on the elementary branches of theory, for the purpose of obtaining a nearer approximation of theory and art may be given in a few words. In the year 1800, Dr. BIRKBECK at that time a professor in the Andersonian Institution at Glasgow, commenced a gratuitous course of lectures upon the elementary parts of natural philosophy, for the benefit of the numerous workmen belonging to that city; and, for three seasons, his course was attended by nearly five hundred mechanics; whom he found orderly and attentive. In

1821, some gentlemen at Edinburgh established a course of lectures on mechanics, and chemistry; together with an appropriate library, for the benefit of artisans; to suit whose convenience the lectures were to be delivered in the evening, between the hours of eight and nine; the terms of admission being as low as fifteen shillings a year.

The success of these lectures, which commenced with a class of four hundred, drew the public attention strongly towards them; and on the following year, a similar institution was proposed in London; it was established nearly on the same plan, the lectures being delivered in the evening, and the price of admission, (twenty shillings a year,) a fee sufficiently low to fall within the means possessed by any respectable journeyman mechanic. The success of the institution was as complete as that of its prototype; in 1825 we find it attended by nearly a thousand persons, to whom lectures were delivered on geometry, hydrostatics, astronomy, electricity, chemistry, the application of chemistry to the arts, and on the French language. Similar institutions were, at this time, too, spreading rapidly over the kingdom.

DUPIN, whose inquiries into the wealth, military strength, and manufactures &c. of Great Britain have acquired him such just celebrity, did not permit these remarkable institutions to escape him. He returned to his native country full of their importance, and of the expediency of immediately creating similar establishments in France. With this view he proposed to deliver, to the working classes, lectures on the application of geometry to the arts; and invited the *savans* of the provincial towns, especially the *élèves* of the polytechnic school, to follow his example. These lectures were commenced in November 1824 at the *Conservatoire des arts et des métiers*. More than six hundred persons, attended the course, and behaved with the same regularity and attention, which had been exhibited elsewhere. A course of chemical lectures has since been added; and the appeal of M. DUPIN has caused similar institutions to be established in most of the chief towns of France.

The aristocracy have held back, with a cautious reserve, from assisting these new establishments, and are said to look upon them with a jealous eye; but the govern-

ment has rather assisted than retarded their progress; indeed the title of Baron conferred on Dupin, at a time when his sentiments were perfectly known, would not imply an active hostility on the part of the government.

An attempt was made, as early as 1822, to establish a mechanics institute in Philadelphia, upon the plan of those in Europe; but, from several causes, it did not succeed. During the course of the next year the plan was renewed; on the 9th. of December a meeting was held upon the subject, and a committee appointed to frame the draught of a constitution. On the 5th. of February 1824 this committee called a general meeting at the county town house; when it was resolved to establish a course of lectures for instructing mechanics in the elementary branches of science. The lectures were, at first, voluntary; but permanent lectures on natural philosophy, practical mechanics, architecture, natural history, and chemistry as applied to the arts, have since been added. These lectures are not the only object of the Franklin Institute, it embraces schools for the junior classes, and annual exhibitions of works of art, with premiums of gold, silver, and bronzed medals for the meritorious.

This brief sketch will enable our readers to form a tolerably correct idea of the steps recently taken to instruct the labouring classes, that is, the adult portion; for the system of Sunday-schools, primary-schools, schools of mutual instruction and other projects for increasing the diffusion of knowledge among the junior portion of the labouring community, does not fall within the scope of this article. Genl. MERCER's publication on "Education," to which we have had, and shall have occasion to allude, treats of education generally; and we direct the readers attention to this discourse principally to notice an assertion it contains, which, if true, would render the other works not only useless, but pernicious. Gen. Mercer has adopted an opinion, at one time very common, that poor nations are the only happy ones; that "the wealth of nations cannot be reckoned, as a merchant counts up his ledger." In short that SMITH's work should have been entitled an inquiry into the nature and causes of the vice of nations. This is the natural deduction from the reasoning em-

ployed in the whole discourse, and its obvious tendency is not diminished by being denied.

"History," observes Gen. MERCER, "assures us, that the purest communities of the ancient and modern world, the most virtuous, intelligent, and happy, have been comparatively poor and laborious."

"I need not quote from antiquity the personal examples of Cincinnatus and Fabricius; though all that I would illustrate might be enforced from the rank which they attained in their own age and country. Switzerland still affords, England, less than a century ago, and Scotland more recently, till her work shops multiplied faster than her parish schools, furnished of this truth the most cheering assurance. (Page 30.)"

Again; (page 28) "Machinery, the joint production of wealth and ingenuity, has given new employment to accumulated capital, and much enlarged its vast acquisitions. Aided by the growth of numbers, it has cheapened the wages of labour more than it has added to the *enjoyments* of the labourer, by reducing their cost. By this combined agency, it has increased at the same moment the wealth of the rich, and the indigence of the poor. It has accumulated poverty in greater masses, aggravated its misery, and rendered it more terrific."

To the principles here inculcated we are altogether opposed, and from the known acquirements and liberal mind of their author, we were not prepared to find him advocating notions which have been successfully met by nearly every writor on political economy. These opinions lead, in fact, directly to those, which ROUSSEAU brought into temporary notice, by his eloquence in mistating facts. For general poverty and knowledge could never subsist long together, though particular examples, might, at first sight, appear to support such a doctrine. The wealth of nations has often been considered as differing from the aggregate wealth of its individual members. We look upon them, in the present state of society, to be the same, and consider the wealth as altogether distinct from the virtue of a nation, with which Gen. MERCER has confounded it. If, indeed, the greater part of this wealth were in the hands of a few persons, the nation might be little benefited by it, provided they

had, in common with Gen. MERCER, an objection to render their wealth productive on a large scale. If they bought large tracts of land to cover them with forests and wild beasts; if they made slaves of their vassals, and considered it beneath them to patronize manufactories and commerce; if they looked upon national grandeur to mean conquest; and patriotism the destruction of all nations but their own; they might render the capital they possessed a curse, and place their country upon a level with those of Europe during the ages, which the disciples of Rousseau so much admired, and from which state England at the time when Gen. MERCER appeals to it, had recently emerged beyond all other nations, by the influence of commerce, manufactories, and the arts. Scotland, at that time, had scarcely so emerged, and perhaps, never would have done so but for the influence of its *richer* neighbours. We have no time to enter upon an inquiry into the causes why some few countries—thinly peopled—difficult of access—inhabited by a frugal, thoughtful people, and generally surrounded by countries richer than themselves, have appeared to advantage in a moral point of view. But for facts we would refer our readers to MILNE's treatise on annuities, to MACCULLOCH's present state of the Highlands and Western Isles of Scotland, to the hordes of Scotchmen who left their country for every other under the sun, to the itinerant Sivoyards, and to the present state of Geneva, the most profligate city in Europe, the poorer classes of which, if they do not commit crimes that would bring their names into the calendar, are notorious for petty cheating and extortion. The generality of the Swiss are a frugal, industrious, honest and hospitable people; yielding in the two last virtues only to the Tartars who live by plunder and rapine. Such partial examples can never support any doctrine; and if the contrary be well sustained, it follows, that the true bearing of the examples must have been misunderstood. We know of no doctrine better supported than the theory, which asserts the population of the world to have been kept down by misery, and chiefly by want of food. If, then, we would have the world peopled with many, instead of few, inhabitants, we must seek to extend their power over the means of subsistence.

The improvement of machinery and manufactures, the extension of trade on the most liberal principles, so as to bring into action the peculiar advantages of every people, are eminently calculated to do this; and must, ultimately, prove a blessing to the world. One part of the sentence we have quoted above is indeed correct; the improvement of machinery *does* tend to accumulate poverty in greater masses, not however to increase its extent, but to accumulate it together, where its existence may be more readily known and relieved. The extravagant speculations of capitalists, when unchecked by salutary laws, may cause a degree of misery deeply to be deplored; they may call into existence beings for whom a permanent subsistence had not been prepared, and remove others from employments where they could procure the means of life, to a calling which will ultimately desert them.\*

There is another error commonly made, concerning machinery and mechanics, which has been so frequently discussed of late, that we should not have mentioned it but that some striking examples of its futility are to be found in a recent work before us; that is, the policy of publishing works of art, educating mechanics, or exporting machinery, all which tend to make the superiority and skill of the country, where they are permitted, pass into the hands of other nations. The editors of the London Repertory of patent inventions have some good observations on this subject, but we have doubts whether they prove all that they assume.

"The wisdom of granting patents has been doubted by several enlightened men, among whom may be reckoned as foremost the two late Chief Justices of the Court of King's Bench, Lords Kenyon and Ellenborough. An opinion is entertained by some persons that all inventions would come to light sooner or later, if no such protecting grant were made to their original authors."

"It may be said, in answer, would Mr. WATT ever have brought the steam engine to that degree of practical perfection which it has now attained? Would other important inventions have been completed, when the first attempt to bring them into notice

has, in many instances, required an enormous disbursement, which the hope of the reward of an exclusive privilege could alone have induced the parties to have incurred."

"The propriety of publishing the specifications of patents has also been much doubted. Lord Ellenborough has called the Repertory of Arts 'a mischievous work, because it conveys a knowledge of the English inventions abroad.' But previous to the publication of the Repertory of Arts, foreigners used to visit this country purposely to inspect the rolls of specifications, and to transmit home copies of such as they deemed worthy of notice. The incorrectness however of the opinion that the publication of the specification of patents is mischievous, must be evident, when it is a well known fact, capable of easy proof, that most of the important inventions, now flourishing in the kingdom, have originally taken their rise abroad, and thence been imported by industrious individuals, encouraged to such conduct by the admirable system of patents. This circumstance is alone perhaps, an answer to those who have expressed an opinion against the propriety of such a mode of rewarding those who, by this means, add so much to the prosperity of our manufactures. Individuals may sometimes, it is admitted, be injured by the publication of their inventions, because hints taken from them may enable others to surpass and supersede the first contrivance; but this is a public good, and cannot be justifiably opposed by individual interests. It is, besides, a leading principle in the law of patents, and a condition in every patent, that the *specification* should give publicity to the inventor's secret."

"Among the most prominent inventions and discoveries for which this country is indebted to foreigners, may be mentioned the new system of bleaching and tanning; the machinery for making paper in large sheets; and the invention of manufacturing paper from straw; and, above all, the very ingenious and important machinery erected in the King's dock-yards at Portsmouth and Chatham,\* for making ships' blocks. It is also a fact, that foreigners, particularly Americans, are arriving constantly with

\* Answer of the chancellor of the exchequer to a motion of Mr. Ellis on the silk trade.

\* That at Chatham is merely a duplicate, and not used.—C. C.

important inventions; and by a reference to the list of patents it may be seen that those now granted for inventions communicated by foreigners, are nearly as numerous as those for inventions of native growth."

The fact of so many foreigners applying for British patents is curious; but we doubt whether they have been encouraged to do so by the admirable law of patents; and, if they have, the publicity given to their inventions has not formed a part of the inducement. This last can seldom be of benefit to the patentee, whilst it may lead to attempts being made at infringing his right. How common such attempts are, appears from the editor's own account. The idea which operated on these inventive foreigners, and induced them to invest their talent in Great Britain, was undoubtedly the superior gain by employing their exclusive privilege there. We have heard British artists complaining of the publicity given to their inventions, and wishing that the law were more nearly accommodated to that of the Netherlands in this respect.

It generally, happens that the interest of the individual and that of the nation is the same, but this is not always the case: every patent is a monopoly as well as a reward; and cannot be extended beyond a limited term without doing injury. At the end of that term the patent must be made public, otherwise there would be no knowing which inventions were old, and what discoveries would still admit of being protected by patent. This consideration, we think, decides the question, and serves to shew the very limited practical knowledge on this subject which the learned lord, Ellenborough, had, when he called the Repertory of Arts a mischievous book: with all the assistance that such works afford, artists of talents are daily wasting their time and ingenuity upon inventions which would not be maintained for a moment. Let us suppose, for example, that an engineer had discovered at the same time with FULTON the advantage of using paddle wheels for propelling steam boats: it is evident from the late discussions on this point, that he would not have been aware that he was only repeating the invention of others; nay, so imperfectly are such inventions known, that this very scheme, which has excited much discussion, was

published by VATTURIUS of Rimini in a work printed in 1472.

The policy of allowing machinery to be exported is not so readily shewn; and could not, perhaps, have been demonstrated before the numerous facts, which were developed on this subject by a committee of the British House of Commons, became known; these attracted much attention a year or two ago, and the subject was ably treated by some of the British journals. The report of the committee is given at length in the Repertory; and certainly contains much curious information. Nearly all the evidence tends to put in the strongest light the impossibility of preventing such exportation. A curious instance is mentioned of the ultimate effect which legislative protections have on the trades they are intended to protect. In 1785 an act was passed prohibiting the exportation of nearly every tool used in "repairing, working, finishing, or completing the iron and steel manufactures of this kingdom, by whatever name or names soever the same shall be called or known, now or at any time hereafter, and also of any models or plans of any such tool, utensil or implement, "under severe penalties, as if to prevent the industry of the country from being employed in the manufacture of any of those numerous articles required for any other part of the world than the United Kingdom."

"That act would appear, however, to have had a particular reference to the *button* and *buckle* trade, which the legislature seems to have been anxious to monopolize for this country, as almost every tool employed in their manufacture is especially designated; but the buckle trade may be said to have entirely ceased along with the fashion which gave it birth, notwithstanding these bolstering precautions. With respect to the button trade, great improvements have been made in those kinds used for home consumption; and though our manufacture is equal, if not superior, to any in Europe, yet it appears by the evidence of Mr. OSLER, from Birmingham, that the fancy button trade is almost entirely lost to this country, notwithstanding the precautions of this act to retain it. From his statement, on the authority of Mr. LEDSAM, one of the largest button manufacturers in Europe, it would appear, that England at one period suppli-



ed France Germany, Italy, and Switzerland with buttons; and that in Birmingham alone twenty thousand gross were made every week for the foreign market. The reasons, assigned by Mr. OSLER for the loss of that trade, partly explain the cause; namely that copper could be obtained on the continent at sixty per cent. less than in England, owing to the protecting duties imposed in favor of the mining interests in Cornwall; and that the stamp duty on silver, and other charges, raised the price of the article so as to render competition with the French and other manufacturers utterly impossible; an additional proof, if any were required, that the low price of any article of equal quality, is a better security for an extended market than any legislative restriction on exportation of the tools employed in its manufacture."

This evidence puts in a strong light many truths of political economy that are becoming the creed of all who think upon that subject; it points out that however beneficial it may be for individuals, in a few particular cases, to conceal their improvements, and monopolize the implements with which they work, it is rarely, or never, good policy for a nation to do so. The extreme difficulty of confining any manufacture at home prevents the good which restrictive laws would otherwise do, whilst it leaves their evil full room to operate; and all laws which interfere with competition, domestic, or foreign, are highly pregnant with evil. Protected manufactures may be beneficial to the first possessors of them, and on that account are eagerly sought after and represented as national benefits, but ultimately they must invariably become the worst; degenerating by the idleness and indifference which the protection of the law gives rise to, till they have lost too much ground to be recovered, and are driven out of the market by their inferiority. But this is not the only evil which springs from monopolies; the numerous kinds of trades, and the imperfect knowledge of legislatures upon such subjects, render it morally certain that a protection granted to one trade will be an injury to some other, either then existing, or which will subsequently be pursued. The advantage, we see, granted to the mining interests was more efficient in driving the button trade out of

England, than the protection of the law was in keeping it in. And this will probably always be the case. The only efficient protection to a manufacture is, in the words of the committee, "the low price of any article of equal quality." And if it be asked how a country is to produce as good articles as those of its neighbours, at a lower price, the answer is obvious, by pursuing branches of art for which that country has peculiar advantages; and by increasing, in every possible way, the knowledge and skill of its workmen: "a cotton manufacturer," says Mr. GALLOWAY in his evidence before the committee, "who left Manchester seven years ago, would be driven out of the market by the men who are now living in it, provided his knowledge had not kept pace with those who had been during that time constantly profiting by the progressive improvements that have taken place in that period: this progressive knowledge and experience is one great power and advantage." Such an assertion from an enlightened manufacturer is cheering to the advocates of knowledge. It is placing the wealth of nations, where it should be placed, in superior advantages, labour, and intelligence; it is making the most of the means possessed by the whole world, and not setting each nation to cramp and fetter every other, with the hope of forcing into a sickly maturity manufactures that must ultimately perish. C.C.

(To be continued.)

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#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

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We have received a paper from the author of the essays on the policy of encouraging manufactures in Virginia, in which he notices the misrepresentation of the character of those essays in the Free Trade Advocate, and gives a further explanation of his views, but as it was too late for publication in this number it will appear in the next.

The editors take this occasion of correcting an error in the Free Trade Advocate respecting this journal. What appears in it must not be considered as expressing the opinion of "its officers" or even of its editors. The Museum was not instituted for the support of this or that man as president, but for the purposes of free inquiry in every branch of science and literature; and it is open to discussions of a general character which do not violate decency or morality, and which are written with temperance and some ability. The author of those essays then must be considered as alone responsible for the opinions therein expressed, and he seems very willing to assume such responsibility. §

## ENACTMENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY.

The following manuscript enactments of the Board of Visitors are published chiefly for the use of those whom they more especially concern.

1. No student, without permission of the Faculty, shall leave any class which he may have entered or leave the University, without permission, before the end of the session. And if any shall offend herein, he shall be subject to any of the major or minor punishments or may be refused admission into the University, at the next session, at the discretion of the Faculty.

2. A student, desirous to leave the University and having permission from his parent or guardian, may be allowed to do so, by the Chairman, with the written concurrence of all the Professors he attends, if it be inconvenient to consult the Faculty.

3. The celebration of the anniversary of Independence and of Washington's birth day, in a manner becoming a literary institution is recommended to the Professors and students, as a duty worthy of constant observance. But no festivities which naturally lead to excess are advisable on the occasion. Public dinners, therefore are strictly prohibited—though a ball or other evening party, attended by Professors and students, having its pleasures chastened by the company of ladies, is allowed, under such regulations as the Faculty may prescribe.

The celebration most appropriate to a University must blend literature and science with the indulgence of patriotic feeling. The board therefore recommend, for the fourth of July, reading the Declaration of Independence, with suitable solemnities; orations on the day and on other subjects, historical, literary and scientific: to be spoken or read, under the regulation of the Faculty. They recommend that the subjects of composition shall be given to the students, a suitable time before hand.—That each student who pleases, may compose an oration or write a discussion, on such as he may select.—That these compositions with the name of the author be submitted to the Faculty for their inspection and criticism; That such as are deemed proper to be publicly read or spoken have their seals broken and be returned to their authors, for the purpose of being read or spoken: and that those which may not be deemed proper for public exhibition be returned to their authors, with the seals unbroken.

For the twenty-second of February, they recommend, under similar regulations, compositions on subjects, illustrating the life and cha-

acter of Washington, and other suitable subjects: to be publicly read or spoken as may be deemed proper by the Faculty.

4. The bell shall be rung every morning throughout the session at dawn: the students shall rise at this signal, dress themselves without delay and be prepared for business at sunrise, at which time the Proctor shall, at least once a week, inspect their apartments and see that they are in proper order. He shall scrupulously report all breaches of this enactment to the Chairman: and any student who shall violate it shall be subject to any of the minor or major punishments.

5. Public orations and public addresses, delivered by students, affecting, in some degree, the reputation of the institution, and interfering with the more regular Academic pursuits, must be, at all times, subject to the control of the Faculty.

Therefore, resolved, that no student shall deliver any public oration or public address, written or *extempore*, without leave of the Faculty, or pain of any of the minor or major punishments.

6. Leave to the students to partake of festive entertainments may be granted by the Chairman: but as such entertainments are, for the most part, unfriendly to collegiate duties, they should be allowed with caution, and unlicensed indulgence in them should be vigilantly restrained.

7. So much of the enactments as requires a student, absent from the precincts after night, on a visit to a private family, to give a written memorandum thereof to the Proctor, shall be and is hereby repealed: but all such absences without leave, unless on a visit to a respectable private family are strictly prohibited, under the penalties prescribed by the said enactments.

8. The 14th. article of the 4th. chapter of the printed enactments shall be so construed, as to authorize the Faculty to dismiss from the institution, in the manner therein provided, any student, who, in the opinion of the Faculty, from habitual delinquency in all or any of his classes, or from habitual idleness or inattention, or from any other bad habits, shall not be fulfilling the purposes for which he ought to have come to the institution, and shall not be likely to fulfil them if his parent or guardian shall not withdraw him, after having received notice thereof.

ROBLEY DUNGLISON.

*Chairman of the Faculty.*

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## LEGENDS OF THE ENGLISH LAKES.

No. 1.\*

HELVELLYN.—PART II.

(Continued from page 324.)

### THE EMIGRATION.

"Good Heav'n! what sorrows gloom'd that  
parting day

That call'd them from their native walks away:  
When the poor exiles, every pleasure past,  
Hung round the bowers and fondly look'd their  
last;

And took a long farewell, and wish'd in vain  
For seats like these beyond the western main;  
And shuddering still to face the distant deep,  
Return'd and wept and still return'd to weep."

GOLDSMITH'S *Deserted Village*.

Not many months after the departure of Mr. Colchester, a rumour reached the happy and retired region of Wyburn, that the British Government was anxious to establish a settlement in South Africa, in the neighbourhood of Algoa Bay; and the "*Cumberland Paquet*," which was received weekly from Keswick, was filled with the fanciful delineations of Tourists, regarding this land of promise; accompanied by an announcement of the more impressive fact, that the Parliament had granted fifty thousand pounds to aid the emigrants in establishing themselves there.

A sort of utopian delirium was excited on this subject, and the florid descriptions of superficial observers laid hold of the minds of many, who, from their sober ha-

bits and careful reflection, might have been expected to afford a soil little adapted for the reception of such seed.

The district of the *Zuureveld*, literally "Sour Field"—so called from the character of its vegetable productions—was represented as a fair and fertile region of unrivalled beauty, and only requiring flocks and herds to be quite Arcadian—adorned with evergreen groves and forests—with the euphorbia and the strelitza—the chandeleraloes and the scented acacia, and its lawny solitudes covered with sportive herds of elegant antelopes. Such were the accounts universally current; and such the feelings which appear to have impressed every traveller; even the pious missionaries, Latrobe and Campbell, grew poetical in the description of their journey over it.

How delusive these representations proved; how fallacious the hopes thereby engendered; how rashly and hastily the whole scheme was concocted; the results of the late emigration have sufficiently testified!

Amongst those of the staid and considerate who were led away by the general enthusiasm was Mr. Todhunter. Although in the enjoyment of every blessing; happy in his family, and prosperous in his circumstances; these vivid representations induced a desire for change, which had never previously characterised him. He was remarked by his neighbours to be thoughtful and reserved; and to be incessantly inquiring into the price of land and of agricultural implements; so that a rumour speedily got abroad, that he was desirous of making large purchases; yet how this could be they could not imagine, as they fancied, they knew *exactly* the means possessed by Mr. Clementson

\* These legends are not according to the definition of the word by Blackmore—incredible and unauthentic narratives: on the contrary, the incidents are frequently founded on fact, and the historical and descriptive portions generally faithful.

and those which he had bequeathed to Mr. Todhunter; and they knew, moreover, that, since Mr. Clementson's death, the price of the produce of the soil had not been such as to enable any one to augment his property; adding many common observations on the hardness of the times, and the causes which tended to depress the agricultural interest in particular; and then, many sapient surmises were indulged, regarding the young stranger, whose life Mr. Todhunter's family had been instrumental in saving; that, for instance, it was not improbable he had made large presents to the family; and it was farther asserted to be a fact, that he was about to be united to Mr. Todhunter's daughter, for whom he had not hesitated to express the greatest interest, in the presence of Miss Lintop, a maiden sister of the clergyman of Grasmere.

All these rumours agitated the neighbourhood, for sometime, before they were dispelled by more accurate information. At length it transpired, that Mr. Todhunter had been in correspondence with the colonial office; and had, farther, been heard to speak in raptures of the prospects held out to the enterprising, who would emigrate to South Africa; nay, he had even asserted, in the presence of the before mentioned lady, that if he had not so large a family, he would unhesitatingly dispose of his property, pack up his all and proceed forthwith to this fairy settlement, where every luxury was to be produced without the slightest exertion on the part of the settler.

This contingent mode of expression, so commonly employed even when the mind is fixed upon any course, was properly construed by the neighbours. Still, they remained in a state of uncertainty, until, according to the custom of the country, the parish clerk, one Sunday morning, after the congregation had quitted the church, made proclamation in the church yard, with a stentorian, O yes! several times repeated, that "THE ESTATE OF MR. JOHN TONTER, WITH ALL THE GOODS AND CHATELS THEREUNTO BELONGING WILL BE SOLD TO THE HIGHEST BIDDER ON THURSDAY SE'NNIGHT, THAT IS THE 20TH. OF DECEMBER 1819. "GOD SAVE THE KING!"

Many a remark, it may be imagined, was

made by the honest farmers, on the announcement of this intention of their neighbour. They who had not been consulted, and thought they ought to have been, were loud and long in the expression of their dissatisfaction; and some declared, for the first time in their lives—"that they'd iver thowt Jwon Tonter varra hity-tity," adding a number of wise saws; that "they who got their money sae easy did not know the value on't," and such like. Nay, one of them, a bluff old statesman who had been on terms of intimacy with Mr. Todhunter's father as well as with his benefactor, Mr. Clementson, ventured to tell him to his face: "yi'll live to rue it, Mr. Tonter."

It will be readily imagined, that Mr. Todhunter, however much he might be influenced by his utopian delirium, could not bring his mind to this decision without numerous pangs. Well would it have been for him had he consulted some of his more experienced friends, and listened more sceptically to the seductive accounts, which had been given. Untutored was he in the ways of the world, and but little aware of the numerous and weighty inconveniences attendant upon emigration, even to the most advantageous situations. His life had been spent in comfort: privation was unknown to him; and, in his enthusiasm, was never anticipated. The chief distress, which he experienced, was in disposing of that home in which he had spent so many years of happiness,

"that cot, where every pleasure rose," and in parting with those friends, who had proved to him, that the friendship of the world is not, as it has been described and has too often proved, "a show! mere outward show!"

The chief pang was, however, yet to come. The day of sale was, indeed, one of severe trial: but if a tear started into his eye, when a favorite article of furniture was exposed to the highest bidder, he dashed the intruder away, as if fearful that his tender associations might overcome his resolution. It was a time of constant effort, of perpetual strife with his inmost feelings.

His children, with that desire for novelty, which is proverbial, and dutiful and affectionate withal, made no serious objections to their father's wishes. This, consequently, gave him but little uneasiness. But, when the day of departure arrived, his firmness well nigh failed him; the kindheart-

ed neighbours—many indeed from a considerable distance—when they heard that the family were about to quit this peaceful region to traverse thousands of miles on the trackless ocean, assembled to take, as they imagined, a last farewell; believing it, in their ignorance, impossible that the family could ever escape the dangers of such a voyage; seeing that they themselves considered it necessary to settle their affairs, before journeying even from their own to a more distant country. And, when all the indigent neighbours, whose necessities had been relieved, and whose afflictions had been soothed, by the attentions of Rose Todhunter assembled,—sobbing as if their hearts would break to take leave of their benefactors; at being separated from those on whom they had been so much dependant,—there was not a dry eye to be seen; and when the vehicles drove off, in which they were to travel to Liverpool, the place of their embarkation, loud were the sobs and groans—those signs of a trial, as it were, of strength between the soul and the body—which escaped from every one present, and the little, ragged urchins, who had been so largely indebted to the benevolence of this excellent family, accompanied the carriages, sobbing and crying, until they one by one dropped off, and the emigrants were finally separated from every animated link that connected them with their former residence.

It may be known to many of our readers, that five thousand emigrants were selected from the incredible multitudes of all ranks, characters and professions, who, at this period, besieged Earl Bathurst's office with their importunate applications: these were put on board a fleet of transports, provided and well fitted out by the British Government; the better accommodations being allotted to the settlers of property and respectability, whilst the steerage was assigned to those of an inferior description.

We shall not dwell on the various events that occurred on the passage—suffice it to say that it was attended with the usual alternations of storms and calms, to which the passenger becomes tolerably accustomed before the expiration of a long voyage and was relieved only by the transient excitement, occasioned by the usual ceremonies observed on crossing the line. It was, on the whole, a favorable voyage, and the

emigrants disembarked safely at Algoa bay, whence they proceeded in long trains or caravans of bullock waggons, towards their land of promise; the whole cavalcade which had assembled here consisting of not less than ninety thousand souls. How miserably deceived many of these infatuated beings must have been, may be imagined from the fact mentioned by an intelligent individual of the party, that he one day met with a company of *ladies and gentlemen*, searching for *apricots and oranges* in the thorny jungles near the Zwartkop's river, where they expected to find them growing wild in the woods, like the hip and the haw in England.

After a weary progress, the settlers at length reached Albany, with a serene sky above and verdant plains and bowery groves around them; and they pitched their tents under the shade of the fragrant *Acacia* and amid groves of the gorgeous *kaffer-boom*—the *erythrina corallodendrum* of Botanists.

The first view of the *Zuureveld* was not calculated to remove the delusion, under which the sanguine settler had laboured. This extensive region consists of a stretch of country sixty or seventy miles long by about thirty broad; calculating its length from the Bosjesman's to the *Groote Visch* or Great Fish River; and its average breadth from the sea beach to the parallel range of mountains extending from the *Groote Visch* to Assagay Bush. Near the coast it is considerably diversified by small hills and gently rising grounds, and, for the most part, flows into an easy, undulating, outline.

The general aspect of the country is picturesque—the verdant pastures and the grassy knolls contrasting beautifully with the dark and dense forests, which clothe the deep glens and the banks of the water courses, whilst the undulating, open, country is often agreeably diversified with scattered groves or large straggling trees, intermixed with thickets of evergreens and clumps of the mimosa.

A verdant cop, one of the highest in the neighbourhood, Mr. Todhunter selected as the site of his future residence. It was beautifully situated, commanding an extensive view over the *Zuureveld* and over its most picturesque portion; and was possessed, from its situation, of an advantage, which he did not then appreciate, in being

safe from the excessive inundations to which the country is liable.

Little, indeed, did the settlers dream that this was an evil they had to apprehend; although a slight examination of the geological appearance of the country might have exhibited it to them forcibly.

The streams, which issue from the range of mountains forming one of the boundaries of the Zuuerveld, have formed deep and broad *kloofs* or ravines—the channels of periodical torrents—in which only a small quantity of brackish water usually flows, although these yawning gulphs, situated, as it were, between mountains, when gorged by the sudden and excessive rains, become formidable rivers, rolling on with terrific impetuosity to the sea, and sweeping every thing before them.

Unaware of the danger of these sudden hurricanes the improvident emigrants had fixed their habitations in the verdant dales, wherever a brook or fountain was discovered; and where the light mould, washed from the higher grounds, presented a richer and deeper soil for cultivation; in situations liable to excessive inundations; and even where there were vestiges of former deluges on the trees and banks higher up the hill than some of the huts they inhabited.

The land, appropriated to Mr. Todhunter, lay around the cop, and comprised some of the most fertile in the whole Zuuerveld.

His family consisted of his daughter Rose, of whose virtues we have already spoken, and a younger daughter—his sons Edmund and John, the latter of whom was about fifteen years of age—and a man and his wife, who were ardently attached to the family, both having been servants to Mr. Todhunter in Cumberland for many years, and who insisted on sharing with them the advantages or disadvantages of their new condition.

It was, of course, of immediate necessity to erect some covering to shelter them from the inclemencies of the weather, and from every intrusion, until a suitable habitation should be built. A "*wattle and daub*" house was, therefore, run up—in other words, a frame of posts, surmounted by a thatched roof and wattled up to the eaves, with branches of trees or saplings from the nearest thicket. The inner partitions being constructed of the same materials, and the whole plastered with clay.

This was sufficient for their immediate necessities; indeed it formed the ordinary habitation of the poorer settlers; and, when smoothed over, white-washed and adorned with a neat garden in front, had an air of considerable comfort and convenience.

Mr. Todhunter, however, immediately set about the erection of a more durable and commodious dwelling, which was inhabitable in the course of a few weeks. In the mean time he had commenced his farming operations, had cleared and cultivated a considerable extent of corn land, made several dams in the neighbouring brook, or river—for in South Africa every insignificant stream receives this appellation—and led water from a considerable distance to irrigate his fields, which he inclosed with quince hedges, and planted vineyards, orchards and gardens for future use.

Every thing was going on prosperously, and the family were gradually becoming accustomed to the privations, necessarily attendant upon a first settlement at such a distance from more cultivated districts: the crops had made their appearance and were very promising, when it was suddenly discovered, that they had been attacked by the rust or mildew; and what seemed a singular fatality,—although the rust had not been wholly unknown at the Cape—it first began to prevail extensively and destructively in the very year, 1820, that the colonists arrived. The discovery was made at the time when the expectations of the emigrants had been elevated, by the establishment of the *Drostly* or seat of the Provincial Government at Bathurst town; and, by the projected opening of the Kowie river as a port for the exportation of their surplus produce.

But this infliction upon the vegetable world was only the first of a series of misfortunes.

The forest, which covers the steep and rugged ravines of Albany and the boundary ridge of mountains, is inhabited by the buffalo, the antelope and the cowardly hyana; the last of which makes occasional ravages amongst the flocks of the settler. The other and more noble animals—the lion, the elephant, the springbok, the quagha &c., described by travellers, have now almost disappeared—frightened from their former haunts, by the approach of man.

Occasionally, however, a ferocious-lion is met with and it was such an accidental rencontre, which converted the dwelling of Mr. Todhunter into a house of mourning.

John Todhunter, the younger son, had been hunting, in company with a neighbouring settler. On arriving at a spring, surrounded by tall reeds and rushes, he handed his gun to his companion and alighted to seek for water, but, on approaching the fountain, an enormous lion started up, close at his side and seized him by the arm. The youth, although dreadfully alarmed and taken by surprise, stood still without struggling, having the presence of mind to be aware, that the least attempt to escape would be followed by instant destruction. The animal, also, remained motionless, holding the arm firmly in its fangs, but without biting it severely; and shutting its eyes, at the same time, as if unable to withstand the look of its victim,—for the overpowering effect of the human eye upon the lion seems to be now sufficiently attested. As they stood in this position, young Todhunter beckoned to his companion to advance, and shoot him in the forehead, which might readily have been effected, as the animal kept its eyes closed, and the youth's body concealed any object advancing in one direction from its notice. The companion of Todhunter was, however, miserably deficient in animal courage, and in place of attending to his desires, cautiously retreated towards the top of a neighbouring rock. The youth continued beckoning for assistance, for a long time—the lion remaining perfectly passive: irritated, however, at the cowardly behaviour of his companion and losing all patience with the animal, he drew a knife, with which every South African hunter is provided; and, with the utmost force of his arm, plunged it into its breast. The thrust was mortal; but not early enough to preserve the youth's own life; for the enraged animal, in striving to grapple with him, and whilst held at arm's length by the utmost efforts of his strength and desperation, dreadfully lacerated his breast and arms with its talons. The lion at length fell, from loss of blood, and the youth with it. The pusillanimous companion, who had witnessed this formidable struggle from the rock, now assumed courage to advance and succeeded in carrying his mangled friend to the nearest house, from whence he was

transported home, and received such aid as the kind neighbours and his own afflicted family could afford him. On the day following, he was visited by the surgeon from the *Drosty*, but all human aid was unavailing: he expired three days afterwards of locked jaw.

Great was the distress of the expatriated Todhunter: but, that misfortunes come not singly had been already shewn. Happy would it have been for them had the evil ended here: but this excellent family were doomed to a second bereavement: a second "shaft" was thrown and a second time was their happiness destroyed.

The youngest daughter had caught a severe cold from the vicissitudes to which they were exposed soon after their arrival at Albany: this was augmented by a residence in a habitation, the walls of which were not yet dry; and which permitted the entrance of the raw and chilly air of Spring. The affection had continued with considerable obstinacy for upwards of two months, and but little doubt could remain that the disease had, at length, settled on the lungs.

The distress, produced by the melancholy and calamitous death of the brother, hastened the progress of the insatiate ravager: the roses on her cheek became converted to ashy paleness; save when the circumscribed flush too surely indicated the canker within: week after week she wasted away, buoyed up, as is usual in this delusive disease, with expectations of recovery, till at last;—

"Without a groan, or sigh, or glance to shew  
"A parting pang, the spirit from her past."

In the neighbourhood of their habitation she was deposited in the earth, close by the side of that brother whom she had so tenderly loved, and from whom, in death, she was not separated—amidst the sympathies of the colonists, which are always powerfully excited in all new settlements, on such occasions, but were doubly so in this case, from the accumulated afflictions the family of Mr. Todhunter had experienced in so short a time, and from the feelings of attachment which their benevolent natures had excited in all around them.

These painful dispensations were severe chasteners to Mr. Todhunter, and bitterly did they cause him to repent the step he had taken.

"Fool that I was," he would often exclaim "to leave that world of happiness, which I have proved myself so incapable of appreciating."

Worlds would he have given, had he possessed them, to be restored to Wyburn in the enjoyment of the same happiness, which he had such a short time previously possessed; but this was impossible. His affections he had now to share only between two—instead of four: but these two were patterns of dutiful affection; and their consolatory attentions supported him in his heart-rending trials; although they themselves largely needed the same solace which they bestowed on their adored parent.

The cup of misfortune seemed now to be drained upon the heads of this excellent but unhappy family. Alas! many dreags still remained. Their domestic afflictions were their own. What they had now to experience bore equally on all the colonists; on some, indeed, to an infinitely greater extent than on Mr. Todhunter.

A second, a third, and even a fourth harvest failed, from the combined effects of the rust and the singularities of the climate; and the condition of the inferior colonists became of course most deplorable. Their calamities were, however, yet to be crowned, by one of those excessive inundations to which, as has been already remarked, the country is liable; and which ought to have been suspected, by the settlers, from its geological aspect.

Here, again, the devoted emigrants were doomed particularly to suffer; for, although the storm was felt over all the eastern districts, it was more disastrous to them than to any other class of inhabitants; partly, it was believed, from their want of experience to guard against the effects of these sudden desolations, and partly, as was the case with the greater number, from their utter incapability of repairing the damages they sustained.

From December, 1820, until October, 1823—a period of thirty-four months—sufficient rain had not fallen to saturate the earth or even to keep the streams running. On the fifth of October, 1823, a gentle rain commenced and continued until Monday. On the two following days there were occasional showers, when every thing started into life and verdure. The

night of Thursday, however, proved extremely tempestuous, and the thirsty soil had become entirely saturated. The rain continued in torrents during the night of Friday, and, on the following morning, the most alarming inundation presented itself as far as the eye could reach. The immense *kloofs* were now gorged to the brim and rushing with impetuous velocity to the ocean; and the streams on the lower grounds, which had appeared incapable of exciting alarm under any circumstance, and where many of the poorer emigrants had fixed their habitations, had now swollen into formidable rivers, carrying before them the flimsy habitations of the "*daub and wattle*" kind, and ruining every improvement that had been effected—washing away the corn and the products of the garden along with the soil, and destroying the flocks and herds to an almost incredible extent.

Mr. Todhunter, amidst the general destruction, suffered largely, but not to the same amount as those who had chosen a less favorable site for their residence. A small stream, in front of his house and at the bottom of the knoll, had risen twelve feet in one night: in one place it was upwards of one hundred feet broad and was carrying every thing before it. A great part of his cattle pen or *kraal*, as the Hottentots term it, was swept off; the garden and fruit trees were washed away; and the produce of the soil was found suspended on the bushes, several feet above the ground.

Fortunately, the house was of good materials: within doors, consequently, they escaped well; and they could hear "the dreadful pother o'er their heads" and the spouting of the cataract and the fitful hurricane, without much fear of injury to themselves; but their sensibilities were painfully excited.

"for those whose heads  
Were naked to the visiting blasts of Heav'n  
In that its hour of wrath.

For the lone traveller on the hill of storms  
For the tossed shipman on the perilous deep."  
and they calculated, too truly, that they would be doomed to learn of extensive devastation among the plantations of their neighbours as well as their own. The prospects of the whole colony were, in fact, ruined, and it was now satisfactorily proved, that neither the high nor the low places could be cultivated; the droughts



destroying every thing on the former, and the torrents committing their irreparable ravages on the latter.

Every hour brought Mr. Todhunter fresh accounts of the desolation amongst the settlers. In one place the water had risen twenty-five feet, had filled the house, and both the emigrant and his wife and family (consisting of six children, one an infant only six weeks old,) sought refuge in the woods, for the remainder of the night, and had a most miraculous escape. In Graham's Town, forty houses had been carried away; and Uitenhage and Stellenbosch were severely damaged. In the Field-Corncy of Zwaagshoek from eighteen to twenty thousand sheep perished, and Hans Hamerslag, one of the Dutch farmers or *Vee Boers*, behind the Hartfell, lost between two and three thousand.

The misery, occasioned by this destructive tempest, put an end to the hopes, that had been entertained, of successfully colonizing this devoted district. They, who had been brought up to a commercial or operative life, left their settlement and resorted to Cape Town; whilst others betook themselves to the neighbouring *Drostdys*. Still many were kept there by their interest in the soil and the difficulty they had of disposing of it, after such accumulated disasters. Amongst those, who were thus situated and who had made zealous and persevering exertions to effect the objects of government, was the unfortunate Todhunter.

Bitterly—yet more bitterly—did he deplore the delusion under which he had laboured, and that he had not investigated, with proper scepticism, the gaudy descriptions of the passing traveller and the culpable representations of the government, which had devised this injudicious, ill-concerted, and, as it turned out, ruinous emigration. And often, again, did he reflect on the delirium under which he had laboured, and that he should not have taken the advice of some conscientious counselor—and then, the warning voice of his old neighbour—"y'll live to rue it Mr. Tontor!" would constantly intrude upon his reflections—for these prophetic remarks make a strange impression when they come to be too sadly realized; and then the heart-rending recollection of his severe domestic calamities, and of his prospective existence in poverty and misery, almost drove him distracted: added

to which, marauding Kaffres made incursions into his settlement, rendered bold by the universal distress and the consequent neglect of the *Landdrost* or sheriff of the district, took away a part of his remaining cattle and seized upon old Thomas, his servant, but let him go, after cutting off his buttons and almost frightening the poor creature to death.

The British Government had long been aware of the blighted prospects of the emigrants, whom their well meant but unfortunate allurements had caused to desert their native country. The feelings of the British nation were, likewise, powerfully interested; and large subscriptions were got up for the relief of the settlers.

It was not until the names of the sufferers had been communicated in the public prints, that Mr. Colchester had the slightest idea that the family of his old benefactor might form part of them. On seeing the name of Todhunter, however, he immediately wrote to Dalehead, thinking that some relatives of his friends might be amongst them, and anxious to have an opportunity of reciprocating the kindness that had been extended to him.

The period which had elapsed, since his visit to the Lakes, had been employed in the completion of his education at the University of Oxford; where, although occupied in the severer studies, his thoughts frequently wandered to the happy locality of Wyburn.

Not receiving an answer from Dalehead he immediately wrote to Mr. Lintop, the clergyman of Grasmere, from whom he received the unpleasant intelligence, that Mr. Todhunter had, three years previously joined the emigration to Algoa Bay, and consequently that he was one of the sufferers.

The grateful youth immediately determined, at all hazards, to proceed to the Cape; and, having learnt that a Board of Commissioners was about to be sent out through the interest of his father, who was an old friend of the minister, he succeeded in obtaining a seat in it: and as the agitated condition of the colony required immediate investigation, the Mercury, of forty two guns, was dispatched with the Commissioners, which after an unusually short voyage landed them safely at Cape Town, from whence they hastened to Albany and reached the *Drostdy* at Bathurst Town, soon after the dreadful hurricane.

With difficulty the Commissioners made their way over the inundated country to Thirlmere, the residence of Mr. Todhunter.

The joy of this afflicted family, at the sight of Mr. Colchester, may be easily imagined; whilst his benevolent heart was racked at the deplorable state in which he found those, who, a few short years before, were in a situation to diffuse assistance and happiness on all around them. Still his distress was mitigated by the ennobling reflection, that he could now have an opportunity of administering to their felicity.

His accumulated misfortunes had already determined Mr. Todhunter to return to his native country, at all risks; for, although he had suffered considerably in his means, he was still possessed of sufficient to enable him to purchase a small estate; and, by economy, to live in comfort. This resolution was encouraged by Mr. Colchester, who promised, on his return to Cape Town, to send them conveyances for their transport thither. Accordingly, preparations were made to quit this spot with which so many melancholy sentiments were united: their property was disposed of at public sale, to the *Vee-Boers* who had become accustomed to this climate of uncertainty and poverty: and, when the vehicles arrived from Cape Town, they took leave of the *Zuureveld* with no other feelings of regret, than were caused by the necessity for leaving behind them the ashes of their beloved relatives to repose in the desert, liable to be disturbed by the roaming savage or the prowling beast of the forest.

On their arrival at Cape Town, they found that comfortable accommodations had been provided for them, and, through the instrumentality of Mr. Colchester, they received the attentions of the officers of Government and other respectable residents, so that their temporary sojourn, there, was one of considerable pleasure.

But Mr. Colchester was not thus regardless of his old friends from feelings of benevolence or of duty alone. The love, which he had experienced, on his first acquaintance with Rose Todhunter, had indeed been repressed by absence and by the weight of more severe studies, but it was not extinct. The spark was still there and it needed but the presence of her who had first excited it, and who was now in

the full bloom of youth and beauty, to be again fanned into a flame. The pensive melancholy, moreover, impressed on her fair countenance by the calamities she had experienced, since their first acquaintance, added materially to the interest which she would have otherwise awakened.

As the objects of the commission were not likely to occupy much time, the family were easily prevailed on to remain at the Cape until the Board should return to Europe: with whom they embarked in the *Mercury*, and landed safely at Portsmouth, after an ordinary voyage.

The feelings between Rose and Mr. Colchester had, in the mean time, ripened into the most tender attachment; and on their arrival at Portsmouth their happiness was consummated.

As Mr. Colchester's possessions lay in Northamptonshire, they urged Mr. Todhunter to spend the remainder of his days with them; but their entreaties were entirely ineffectual. Finding him to be fixed in his determination, Mr. Colchester's benevolence was exerted in another direction; and the strong applications, which he made to the Government induced them, for they could not but feel that Mr. Todhunter's losses were partly occasioned by their own ignorance and imprudence, to afford him some compensation: this they were unable to do in a direct manner, from the number of applications that would be occasioned; but the office of Commissioner of stamps for the county of Cumberland, becoming at this time vacant, by the death of the former incumbent, Mr. Todhunter was appointed to the situation, so that his income was now really greater than it had been, prior to his unfortunate expedition.

Still to Wyburn "his heart untravelled fondly turned:" to Cumberland he, consequently, bent his way: and, when the kind and good creatures of Wyburn and the vicinity understood that he was about to return to them after his afflictions, they way-laid and accompanied him to their village, with evidences of the most cordial welcome. Luckily, too, the purchaser of his estate was a man of generous feelings: and soon after Mr. Todhunter's arrival, offered him his possessions for the same amount which he, himself had paid for them: although many improvements had, in the mean time, been effected.

The proposition was joyfully and eager-

ly accepted; and, in a short time, Mr. Todhunter was in possession of that spot rendered dear to him by a thousand associations, where he still lives, ashamed of his hasty and thoughtless expedition; and affording another instance to these rude and sequestered people, of the miseries attendant on a removal from their own happy spot,—in search of

"Some fleeting good that mocks us with the view,

"That, like the circle bounding earth and skies,  
"Allures from far, yet, as we follow, flies:"

and communicating a lesson to the whole world, against engaging in emigration, for the increase of happiness or prosperity, without being fully aware of the capabilities of the country which they may have selected.

R.D. ✍

#### SONNET.

Far from the haunts of man and his abode,  
I find, 'midst nature and her works, a home  
More fitted to my spirit, when I roam  
Or by the silent shore or shady wood;  
Where, though alone, 'tis not in solitude.  
For I can read, or in the starry dome  
Above, or all around, as in a tome,  
With none to check my thoughts or to intrude  
On meditations, which can woe beguile  
Of half its bitterness—and dreams which sleep  
Hath not engender'd: but, alas! the while  
Gay youth and wit and wealth and beauty keep,  
Their midnight revels, must I stand and smile,  
As one who smiles because he would not weep.

D. U. T.

#### ENGLISH PROVINCIALISMS.—No. 6.

(Continued from page 289.)

#### KELTIC DIALECTS IN THE BRITISH ISLES.\*

The word *Kelt* is of Greek origin. When the Romans adopted the name from them, according to custom, they changed the *k* to *c*. In this manner *Celt* came to us. *C* before *e* and *i* was, however, always pronounced, by them, like *k*; and, hence, we have preferred the original orthography.†

\* See Adelung's *Mithridates*, vol. 2.

† A writer in the last number of the *North American Review*, in a notice of the "*Grecian and Roman Geography*" of Professors Long and Duglison, objects to this word being written *Kelt*, as well as to *Babelmandel* being written

The *Kelts* are supposed to have been the earliest people, that migrated from Asia to Europe. The older Greeks, however, knew little more of them, than that they dwelt in the west; and, they were so little acquainted with the western portions of Europe as to designate all the nations, who dwelt between the Oder and the mouth of the Tagus, by that name. The Romans, from their different manners and customs, and language made a better discrimination, but they still reckoned, as *Kelts*—the Iberians, Germans and Thracians.

At the commencement of correct history, the true *Kelts* dwelt partly in Gaul and Britain, and partly in many districts of Italy and in the countries between the Alps and the Danube, from Gaul to Pannonia. In antient Italy, the Umbrians and Ausonians, at least, belonged to them. Between the Alps and the Danube—the Taurisci (the subsequent Norici) the Vindelicii, the Helvetii and the Rheti were also *Keltish*.

The *Kelts*, it is imagined, probably took their course out of Asia, to the south of the Danube; so that they had the Iberians before them, the numerous tribe of the Thracians behind and the Germans on their flank. In this course they settled in Italy and the southern portion of Germany. They appear to have called themselves *Gael* or *Gail*, whence the Greeks formed their *Γαλαται*, *Κέλται*. Under the name *Galli* they were known to the Romans; and their descendants in the highlands of Scotland are still called *Gaels*.

The language of the *Kelts* differs considerably from the Gothic or Teutonic; although the proximity of the nations gave occasion to continual admix-

*Babelmandeb*. The Reviewer is evidently not aware that the former has been employed by some of the best writers, and that the latter is used by all the most approved, geographers. He also objects to the authors and places of antiquity being designated by their *correct* names and prefers the use, in schools and colleges, of the *modern* names which have been given them. The high eulogiums passed on the work are valueless from one exhibiting so much erroneous prejudice.

WY.

tures; there is reason, likewise, for believing, that it furnished numerous roots to the Latin.

The following are a few of the Keltish words which enter into the conformation of English and other proper names.

*Aber*, A bay—the mouth of a river—hence, *Abersfraw*, *Abergavenny*, *Aberconway*—*Aberavon*, *Aberystwith* and also *Havre*.

*Alpes*, A mountain—hence, *Albion* from its high coasts. Strabo calls the Swiss mountains *Albia*.

*Carn*, A rock or heap of stones—hence, perhaps, *Cornwall*; although this is by some, derived from *Cornu-Gallie*—the horn of Wales—*Carnia*, *Carinthia* &c.

*Craig*, A rock—whence various names in Scotland—and perhaps the *Graian Alps*.

*Dun*, A hill or mountain—English *Downs*—*Caledonia* &c. Also a deep place—English *Down*—*Lugdunum*.

*Pen*, *Penn*, The summit of a mountain—whence *Pendennis*, *Pennygant*, *Penrith*, *Penryn*; also *Apennine*, *Penine Alps* &c.

*Tan*, A country—hence *Britannia* and *Aquitania* &c.

That Great Britain was peopled from Gaul, Cæsar concluded, from a comparison of their language, manners and religion; and this opinion was confirmed by Tacitus, Strabo and others.

When this migration happened, however, is not clear; it was, probably, before the year B.C. 500; and, perhaps, at the time when the Gauls were harassed in the northwest by the Belgæ or Kymbri of Germany.

The fugitive Gauls, who crossed the channel, assumed the name of *Britons*, but why is not clear; and the country they called, from its rocky shore, *Albion* or *Highland*.

When, however, still before the time of Cæsar, the Belgæ or Kymbri pursued them thither, and partly subjugated, or drove them to the northern mountains, and perhaps also to Ireland—the name

*Britons* was appropriated, by foreign nations, to the Belgæ, and still later to their successors—the present English. It is not improbable but that Ireland, at this time, received its earliest inhabitants.

The *Gaels*, who fled to Ireland and into the mountains of Scotland are considered by Philologists (Adelung Th. ii. p. 78.) to be the only genuine Britons—the migrating Belgæ being *Kymbri*; the term was subsequently, however, as we have seen, applied to them.

The Britons, who fled to the northern mountains, were, afterwards, called *Caledonians*, from *Cael*, *Gal*, a Gael, and *Don* or *Dun*, a mountain—consequently, “mountain-Gaels or highlanders.” Ireland, which was later known in history, received its name from its western situation, from *Ire*, *Eire* or *Erie*, “west;” and their language was called by the highlanders, *Ersich*, *Hersich* or *Erse*, but by themselves *Cælic-Erinach*, or western Gaelic.

Both the Gaelic and Erse have received, by religion and civilization, many Latin words; and, by the domination of the Normanni (or Eastmen as they called them,) German words and forms of speech, were of course, introduced.

### 1. *Erse or Irish.*

Ireland was first discovered by the Romans in A.C. 82. under the Governor of Britain, Agrippa; but it was not conquered. It was, consequently, but little known to the Romans; and not affected by their civilization.

We have already said, that it was probably peopled from England, at the time of the invasion of the latter by the Belgæ or Kymbri. Richard of Cirencester, a writer of the 14th. century, asserts, that the fugitive Britons, from this event, received the name *Scuite* or *Scots*—which means fugitives. This much appears certain, that they were, in the tenth century, called *Scots*, and that whatever is said of the Scots, prior to that period, applies to the Irish. The name of the country, *Eirin* or *Erin*, still used by the inhabitants, is from *Eir* or

Jar, "west" and in, "island"—"west island." From this the Romans formed their *Juerna* and *Hibernia*—we our *Ireland*.

Orosius, about A.D. 417 remarks, that Ireland was inhabited by Scots. Prosper, who wrote about A.D. 430, calls Ireland a barbarous island inhabited by Scots; and Gildas, who flourished about A.D. 564, calls them sometimes Scots and sometimes Hibernians. (Adelung loc. cit.)

Towards the end of the 4th. century, in union with the *Picts*, they harassed the Roman colonies in Britain; and, after the departure of the Romans, possessed themselves of the whole of North Britain—the present Caledonia—which was subsequently called *Scotland*.

The following is an Erse Paternoster, according to the grammar of Vallancey, of 1782. It is the language as now spoken by the "wild Irish."

*Air n' Ahir, ata air Nau.*  
Our father, who in Heaven,

*Nihetur himm*  
be hallowed his name

*tigu do Riachd,*  
comes thy kingdom:

*diuntur do hoil, air a talu,*  
be done thy will, on the earth,

*mur nihur ar nau:*  
as it is done in heaven:

*air naran lehavil toir yun a nu;*  
our bread daily give us this day;

*agus maith yun ar viacha, mur waih minc dar*  
and forgive us our sins, as we forgive our

*reharna fein;*  
sinners;

*agus na leig schin a gahu:*  
and not lead us into temptation;

*ach sihr schin a olc.*  
but free us from evil

Adelung has adduced other formulæ, which differ in some respects, but on the whole strongly resemble each other.

## 2. The Gaelic or mountain Scotch.

It has been remarked, that the Britons, who were driven by the Belgæ or Kymbri to the northern districts of Albion, were called *Caledonians* from their resi-

dence; and, until the present day, the highlanders name their country *Caeldoch*. Caledonia, at that time, included only the western, mountainous, region, to the north of the Firth of Forth, and of the Clyde. The inhabitants of the less mountainous country to the east are described by Eumenius the rhetorician A.D. 297, under the name of *Picts* (Adelung p. 9.) These were, perhaps, not so called from the Latin *pictus*, because they painted their bodies, as this was the custom with all the Britons—but from the Gaelic *Pietich*, "a robber." Their true national name is said to have been *Cruitnich*, "wheat or corn eaters." Bede and others have considered that they migrated from Scandinavia or Scythia, but it is more probable, that they were genuine Gaels or Britons.

The Caledonians lived with the Picts in constant feuds; and the latter, in union with the Scots in Ireland, made numerous incursions into the Roman territory. It has been remarked, that, after the departure of the Romans, these Scots, in 503, took possession of all Caledonia; and from them the whole of the northern part of Britain was, subsequently, denominated *Scotia Minor* or *Scotia Nova*. As they came as conquerors, the old inhabitants were made their bondsmen, and the land was partitioned under their most celebrated leaders, into Clans or families, who acknowledged a king as their common sovereign.

Under Kenneth, king of the Scots A.D. 838, the Irish-Scots of the west were first united with the Picts of the east into one kingdom, with the name of *Scotland*.

The Normanni, at that time the plague of western Europe, could make but little impression on western Scotland on account of its mountains; and of their expeditions in the western portion we have no historical accounts. All the islands, lying to the north and west, were, however, conquered by them A.D. 835, and some were long held in possession; whilst, in the twelfth century, Scotland

became a fief of England and was subsequently united to her.

The level, southern portion, and a part, also, of the eastern or former country of the Picts, was early conquered by England, and settled by English Colonists; here, consequently, the English language was predominant. The western, mountainous, portion,—the highlands—(Irish, *Albanich* or mountainland) with the neighbouring islands, alone retained their old clannish constitution manners and language. With the Scots from Ireland the Irish dialect of the Gaelic became predominant over the British. On the island of St. Kilda, one of the Hebrides, the Gaelic was said to be spoken in its greatest purity, as the inhabitants had the least intercourse with foreigners, but this insignificant place, had, in 1764, not more than twenty-two male inhabitants.

The inhabitants of the Orcades, to the north, use the English after the Scotch dialect; and not many years ago the old people spoke Norwegian.

The dialect of the Isle of Man or the *Manx* has deviated most. It is a mixture of Gaelish, Norwegian, English and Welsh.

This island was, originally, peopled from Britain, and was well known to the Romans by the expedition of Agricola. In the tenth century, it and the Hebrides and Orcades were conquered by the Danes under Prince Orry, who kept his court in the Isle of Man. Towards the end of the eleventh century it was possessed by the Norwegians, one hundred years later by the Scots, and in the middle of the fourteenth century by the English.

The following is a Paternoster given by Professor Vater of Königsberg from a Gaelish Bible: it corresponds intimately with that already adduced from the Erse.

*Ar 'nairne ata air neamh,  
Beanicha t'anim,  
Gu d'iga do rìogda  
Gudanta du 'hoill air talm 'in. mar t'a air ne-  
amh,*

*Tubhar dh'uin an nuigh aran luimhail,  
Agus me' dh'uine ar fiach, amhail near Mothm  
hid ar fiacha,  
Na leig sin aub' andh, ach saorsa sin' o' n ole*

### *Manks—or Keltic dialect of the Isle of Man.*

*Ayr ain t' ayns niau  
Casherich dy rou dt' ennim;  
Dy jig dey. Rihreaght;  
D' taigney dy rou jeant er Tallu, myr te ayns  
niau;  
Cur duin jiu nyn Arran gugh lua;  
As leüh duin nyn Loughtin, myrta shin leih dau-  
Syn ta janu Loughtin ny noi shin;  
As ny l'ihid ayns Mìolagh;  
Agh livery shin veih olk.*

### *Kymbric of Wales and Cornwall.*

Considerably before the time of Cæsar, the Belgæ, of German descent, had crossed the Rhine, dispossessed the Gauls and taken possession of the country between the Rhine and the Seine, as far even as Helvetia; and, as it is probable, that the Gauls remained subjects of the victors, their language would necessarily become mixed with the German, and a third Mongrel Dialect be, in this manner, formed; the difference between which and the pure Gaulish was noticed by Cæsar and others. These immigrant Germans were called, by the Gauls, *Belgæ*, on account of the lowness of their land on the Nether Rhine (Ade-lung :) but they denominated themselves *Kimri* or *Kimbri*.

Not long before the time of Cæsar, as we have seen, a part of these Belgæ crossed over to Britain, drove the old inhabitants—the Keltic Britons—who would not submit to them, to Scotland and Ireland, and took possession of the coasts more particularly. How far they spread to the north we know not. By the Romans they were subjugated, and, probably, the language acquired a part of the Latin words, which it contains, during their long domination of four hundred years. On the arrival of the Saxons and other Germanic tribes, in the 5th. century, the greatest part of

the Belgæ or Kimbri were driven to Wales, Cornwall and Lower Bretany, where they have still kept themselves more or less free from admixture.

The facts we have adduced will shew, that it is not historically accurate to denominate the Belgæ, who were driven to Wales, *Britons*; and their language *antient British*; these terms can only be applied, with strict propriety, to the earlier inhabitants of the island, who were forced by the Belgæ to escape to Scotland and Ireland. The Anglo Saxons called these expelled Belgæ, *Walen*, i.e. "foreigners" and their country *Wales*: they themselves still preserved, however, their old name *Kymri* or *Kimri* and call their language *Cymreg*, which signifies "native."

In Wales they lived, for a long time, independent of the Anglo Saxons and of their successors—the Normans—although they had constant quarrels with them. They were, thereby, separated into several small sovereignties, which were subsequently, united in the three great states of, 1. *North Wales* (Gevineth, Venedotia) to which the isle of Anglesey belonged—2. *South Wales* (Dehawbart, Demetria,) and 3. *Powys* until Edward I, A.D. 1273, added them to England.

The Kimbri exists, in its greatest purity, in Wales—being more mixed in lower Bretany with Latin and French words. Still the former contains numerous Latin terms, partly introduced during the sway of the Romans, and partly with later religious observances.

A great difficulty in the administration of justice in Wales, exists even at the present day, from the inhabitants retaining their ancient language; and although a great part of the Welsh know English tolerably well, yet, in a court of justice, they will be examined only in their own tongue, as they are less likely to be harassed by the cross examination of counsel.

The following are Paternosters of the two dialects of the Kymbri—the *Welsh* and the *Cornish*; which are still spoken.

*Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y Nefoedd,*  
Our Father, who art in the Heaven,

*Sancteidier dy enw;*  
Hallowed be thy name:

*Deud dy Deyrnas;*  
Come thy Kingdom;

*Gweler dy ewyllys, megis yn y nef, felly*  
Be done thy will, as in the heaven, so

*ar y Ddacar hwyfod;*  
on the earth also;

*Dyro i ni heddyo ein bara beunyddiol;*  
Give us this day our bread daily;

*A madden i ni ein Dyledion, felly madden*  
And forgive us our Sins, as forgive

*ninnau i'n Dyledieyr;*  
we our Debtors;

*Ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth;*  
And not lead us into temptation;

*Eithr gwared ni rhag drwg.*  
But deliver us from evil.

#### Cornish Paternoster.

*Ny Taz ez yn Neau,*

*Bonegas yze tha Hanaue :*

*Tha Gwelakath doaz;*

*Tua Bonogath bogweez en Nore, pocoragen*  
*Neau;*

*Roe thenyen Dythma gon dyth Bara :*

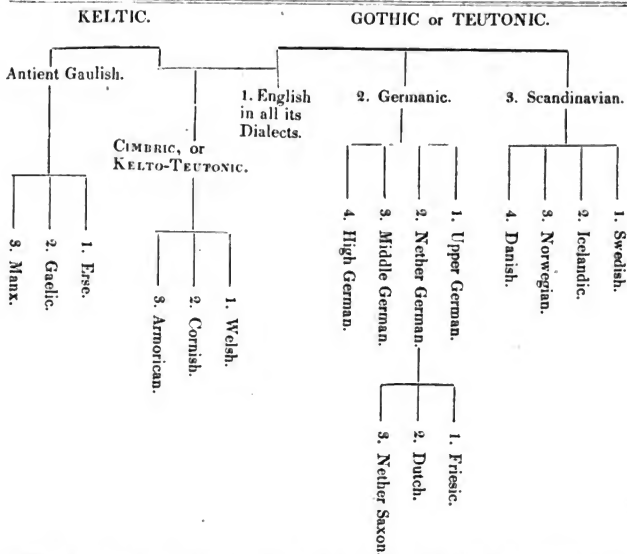
*Gizians ny gan Rabu, wecry cara ny gizians*  
*mens;*

*O cabin ledia ny nara idn Tentation;*

*Buz dilter ny thart Doeg. Amen.*

Of the *Scottish language*, which is so well known, we shall only remark, that it is largely Teutonic; full of Saxon, and Scandinavian words—with a copious admixture of French, owing to the intimate political relations, which existed, at different times, between France and Scotland; and that the excellent dictionary of the *Scottish language*, by Dr. Jamieson, with its supplement, has supplied a great *hiatus* in the history of the dialects of Great Britain; and affords an interesting view of the various national rites, customs and institutions, which prevailed amongst the older Scots, as well as of those in vogue at the present day.

Lastly. The following table exhibits the particular languages which are descended from the Gothic or Teutonic, and the Keltic, mother-tongues, as well as the degree of affinity, which they severally bear to each other.



These remarks, with those on other English Provincialisms, will lead us to the consideration of *Americanisms*.

*See page 417. P.D. W.*

#### DISINFECTING AGENTS.

The small essay, by M. Labarraque, on the use of the chlorides of soda and lime, has been translated by Mr. Jacob Porter of Connecticut.\* The pamphlet comprises instructions, by the ingenious discoverer of the disinfecting power of the chlorides, for using these invaluable agents.

*Disinfection of a putrid corpse.*—Into a tray, or other convenient vessel, pour six gallons of water; into this put one pound of the chloride of lime, which is easily procurable, and stir well the mixture. A cloth is now to be made wet with the solution and laid upon the

corpse; soon after this the putrid odour will cease.

If blood or any other liquid proceeding from the corpse should fall on the floor, throw upon it a glassful of the solution; rub it with a broom and the fetid odour will disappear. Care must be taken to sprinkle the cloth, that covers the body, with the liquid contained in the tray. This will prevent the putrid odour from being reproduced.

*Disinfection of vaults &c.*—On two ounces of the chloride of lime turn three or four pints of water and shake the mixture; sprinkle the solution in the vaults or in vessels containing urine or æces; and if the offensive smell be not quickly destroyed, repeat the operation at the expiration of eight or ten minutes.

We know from experience that the above plan is completely successful.

\* Instructions and observations concerning the use of the chlorides of soda and lime, by A. G. Labarraque, and translated by Jacob Porter, member of the American Antiquarian Society &c. New Haven, 1822, 8vo. pp. 32.—See *Museum*, p. 36.



The pamphlet contains some cases of gangrenous and other ulcers in which the chloride of soda was productive of considerable advantage.

We wish Mr. Porter had been more attentive to his language. It affords too many evidences of being a translation from the French, and is not always accurate English. *Red. +*

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\* NORMAN-SAXON HISTORY.

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It has been a matter of no little surprise to us, that, neither the valuable work of M. Thierry on the Norman conquest nor the edition of the Saxon Chronicle by Mr. Ingram has received any detailed notice from the principal reviews, either of this country or of Great Britain. The period to which they mutually refer is one of deep interest. It embraces the history of the various revolutions to which England was subjected by successive invasions, and consequently of the different modifications, impressed upon the civil and political condition of the country—modifications which have been felt, in many of their bearings, to the most modern times.

Mr. Ingram has the merit of having presented us with the most complete and best elucidated edition of the *Saxon Chronicle*; for, the *Chronologia Anglo-Saxonica* of Professor Wheloc, which was the first attempt of the kind, published at Cambridge in 1644, is comprised in less than sixty-two folio pages, exclusive of the Latin appendix; whilst the improved edition by Edmund Gibson, afterwards Bishop of London, printed at Oxford in 1602, contains nearly four times the quantity of the former but is

far from being the entire Chronicle, as Gibson considers it—"nunc primum integrum edidit"—being his expression in the title page.

The Saxon Chronicle comprises the original authentic testimony of contemporary writers to the most important transactions of our Saxon ancestors, by both sea and land, from their first arrival in Britain to the year 1154. It moreover contains a multitude of interesting facts regarding their architecture, agriculture, coinage, commerce, naval and military glory, laws, liberty and religion. In addition to which Mr. Ingram has given many specimens of Saxon poetry never before printed. "Philosophically considered" he remarks, "this ancient record is the *second* great phenomenon in the history of mankind. For if we except the sacred annals of the Jews, contained in the several books of the old testament there is no other work extant, ancient or modern, which exhibits at one view a regular and chronological panorama of a *people*, described in rapid succession by different writers, through so many ages in their own vernacular *language*. Hence it may safely be considered not only as the primæval source from which all subsequent historians of English affairs have principally derived their materials, and consequently the criterion by which they are to be judged, but also as the faithful depository of our national idiom: affording at the same time, to the scientific investigator of the human mind a very interesting and extraordinary example of the changes incident to a language, as well as to a nation, in its progress from rudeness to refinement."—*Ingram*, p. iii.

With regard to the precise authors of these annals—an important point to be settled in all historical questions—we have little more than conjecture. It seems probable that certain records had been kept in several provinces of the Heptarchy prior to the time of Bede, and a question arises—by whom it is likely that they were made? The probability is that the chroniclers were chiefly found in the monasteries and in favour of this view

\* *Histoire de la Conquete de l'Angleterre par les Normands &c.* Par Augustin Thierry. Paris 1825. 8vo. p. p. 439—507 and 566.

*The Saxon Chronicle with an English Translation, and notes, critical and explanatory, to which are added chronological, topographical, and Glossarial indices; a short grammar of the Anglo-Saxon language; a new map of England during the Heptarchy; plates of coins &c.* By the Rev. J. Ingram, B.D. Rector of Rotherfield Greys, Oxfordshire; and formerly Anglo-Saxon Professor in Oxford. London 1823. 4to. p.p. 463.

Mr. Ingram has furnished us with some argument.

"In the province of Kent, the first person on record, who is celebrated for his learning, is Tobias, the ninth Bishop of Rochester, who succeeded to that see in 693. He is noticed by Bede as not only furnished with an ample store of Greek and Latin literature, but skilled also in the Saxon language and erudition. It is probable, therefore, that he left some proofs of this attention to his native language; and, as he died within a few years of Bede, the latter would naturally avail himself of his labours. It is worthy also of remark, that Bertwald, who succeeded to the illustrious Theodore of Tarsus in 690, was the first English or Saxon Archbishop of Canterbury. From this period, consequently, we may date that cultivation of the vernacular tongue which would lead to the composition of brief chronicles and other vehicles of instruction necessary for the improvement of a rude and illiterate people. The first chronicles were, perhaps, those of Kent or Wessex; which seem to have been regularly continued, at intervals by the Archbishops of Canterbury, or by their direction, at least as far as the year 1001 or even 1070; for the Benet MS. which some call the Plegmund MS. ends in the latter year; the rest being in Latin. From internal evidence indeed, of an indirect nature, there is great reason to presume that Archbishop Plegmund transcribed or superintended this very copy of the Saxon Annals to the year 891; the year in which he came to the See; inserting both before and after this date, to the time of his death in 923, such additional materials as he was well qualified to furnish from his high station and learning, and the confidential intercourse which he enjoyed in the court of King Alfred. The total omission of his own name, except by another hand, affords indirect evidence of some importance in support of this conjecture. Whether King Alfred himself was the author of a distinct and separate chronicle of Wessex, cannot now be determined. That he furnished additional supplies of historical matter to the older chronicles is, I conceive, sufficiently obvious to every reader who will take the trouble of examining the subject. The argument of Dr. Beeke, the present dean of Bristol, in an obliging letter to the editor on the subject, is not without its force; that it is extremely improbable, when we consider the number and variety of King Alfred's work, that he should have neglected the history of his own country. Besides a genealogy of the kings of Wessex from Cerdic to his own time which seems never to have been incor-

porated with any M.S. of the Saxon chronicle, though prefixed or annexed to several, he undoubtedly preserved many traditionary facts, with a full and circumstantial detail of his own operations, as well as those of his father, brother and other members of his family; which scarcely any other person than himself could have supplied. To doubt this would be as incredulous a thing as to deny that Xenophon wrote his *Anabasis* or Cæsar his *Commentaries*. From the time of Alfred and Plegmund to a few years after the Norman Conquest, these chronicles seem to have been continued by different hands, under the auspices of such men as Archbishops Dunstan, Ælfric and others, whose characters have been much misrepresented by ignorance and scepticism on the one hand, as well as by mistaken zeal and devotion on the other. The indirect evidence respecting Dunstan and Ælfric is as curious as that concerning Plegmund; but the discussion of it would lead us into a wide and barren field of investigation; nor is this the place to refute the errors of Hickeys, Cave, and Wharton, already noticed by Wanley in his preface. The chronicles of Abingdon, of Worcester, of Peterborough and others, are continued in the same manner by different hands; partly, though not exclusively, by monks of those monasteries, who very naturally inserted many particulars relating to their own local interests and concerns; which so far from invalidating the general history, render it more interesting and valuable."

Preface x. to xiii.

By this publication Mr. Ingram has conferred an inestimable benefit on the Amateur of Anglo Saxon or old English lore: his work is also of itself, a sufficient guide for the student: the grammar, at the commencement, is short but comprehensive: the critical and explanatory notes fulfil the important purposes for which they were intended: whilst the chronological, topographical and glossarial indices, plates of coins &c., are rich in information to the antiquarian or miscellaneous inquirer.

Of the work of M. Thierry we can hardly speak in terms of adequate praise. It is a history, written as a history ought to be—exhibiting the most scrutinizing examination of authorities—a facility in seizing on the authentic—a freedom from all prejudice, and withal a perspicuity and animation of style capable of rendering the dullest subject pleasing.

— RD

# VIRGINIA LITERARY MUSEUM

AND

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## AMERICANISMS.\*

"Words are the people's; yet there is a choice of them to be made."

BEN JONSSON'S Discoveries.

The observations we have made on the extant English Provincialisms in various numbers of the *Museum* will have already shewn, that many of our reputed Americanisms are common in the Provinces of England. Had Mr. Pickering, indeed, been better acquainted with those dialects he would not have admitted into his diffusive vocabulary many words which find a place there. The number of real Americanisms is small: by which we mean the number of old words used in a new sense; and of *new* words of indigenous origin. Those which were formerly common in Great Britain and are to be met with in the best writers, which are, in other words, good English, although antient, we would not designate by the term; for, if fashion induces the people of Great Britain to neglect them, we have the right to oppose the fashion and to retain them. They are English words.

The population of our country is of a motley character. In some parts migration has been constantly going on, in others but little change has occurred. The language of the former we should expect to be modified by admixture: the latter should preserve, pretty nearly, its pristine character.

The settlers have been English, Irish,

Scotch, French, German, Dutch &c. and wherever the emigrants from any one of these nations have prevailed to a great extent, some of the character impressed by the prevalent population is perceptible. But the English settlers themselves have not all been of the same description: some have proceeded from London and the neighbourhood: others from the west of England and others again from the North: accordingly we find *Cockneyisms*, *west* and *north of Englandisms* in abundance. Many words and expressions, again, are unquestionably of native origin. Some of these are allowable; others ought to be rejected. Those which have been employed to express a state of things not previously existing, which have arisen from the peculiarities of the government or people, belong to the former class; those, which have occurred wantonly and unnecessarily, belong to the latter.

In referring to the words of American growth: under which we have included old words with a new signification and *new* words, we shall adopt the order of Mr. Pickering: omitting, however, those words which he has needlessly canvassed as being incontestibly English, except when a passing remark may be necessary: and adding others, some of them doubtless local, which have escaped him. We regret, in some respects, that we are compelled to undertake this enumeration, without having the Herculean production of Mr. Noah Webster before us, although from what we have seen of it, we should, probably, have been

(\* From *Museum* p. 366.)

compelled to dissent largely from him, especially in the Etymological department.

The words, not in Pickering, are distinguished by an asterisk.

To *admire*—"to like much, to be very fond of"—In this sense the word is often used in England: as "I admire it much"; but it is not employed as in New England,—in the sentence "I should *admire* to go to Boston."

To *advocate*. "to support." This word, by critics, who were themselves unacquainted with their own language, has been declared an Americanism. It is no such thing. Milton used it in the same sense. Yet the *Encyclopædia Americana* seems desirous to claim it, and remarks, that it is doubtful, whether Milton so used it. The author of the article on Americanisms, in that work, cannot have referred to the passage in Milton, or he would have entertained no doubt of the matter:—

"Whether this reflect not with a contumely upon the parliament itself, which thought this petition worthy not only of receiving, but of voting to a committue after it had been *advocated* and moved for by some honorable and learned gentlemen &c":—*Animadversions* § 1.

Burke also employed it: not at first hand. It came ready made and sanctioned to him.

In Scotland it has a restricted meaning, as in the following sentence.

"For men seldom *advocate* against Satan's works."—*Ruth. Letters*. Here it signifies, "to plead":—although the Scotch use it in the sense, "to support"—likewise.

\**Ambition*. "spite." a *Virginianism*. "He brought the action against me, for *ambition*."

*Applicant*—"a diligent student"—not uncommon.

*Appreciate*, "to rise in value."

*Association*—"a convention of clergymen"—*New England*.

From this word comes the adjective *associational*.

The tendency to form adjectives from

substantives and verbs from substantives is universal.

Letters, in England, are sent by the *post*; and hence "to *post* a letter" has been introduced; or, as we say, by like derivation, "to mail it." To *turnpike* a road is now very common. Originally when tolls were taken, a turnpike was placed upon the footpath; the road subsequently became designated a *turnpike* and afterwards the word was made into a verb. A short time ago, we saw a tavern, recommended in a printed handbill as the most *accommodational* on the road; and in Virginia, we hear of a man intending to "*bacon* his pork."

*Backwoodsman*. A new term arising out of the circumstances of the country.

*Balance*. "The remainder of any thing"—common over the country. "Won't you spend the *balance* of the evening with me?" In some places, *shank* is quaintly used with the same signification.

\**Belting* in Virginia—the same as girdling. See "To *girdle*."

*Belittle*. Not an Americanism, but an *individualism*.

*Bestowment*. "The act of conferring"—a barbarism.

\**Blizzard*. "A violent blow"—perhaps from *Blitz*, [*Germ.*] lightning. *Kentucky*.

\**Block*. "A row of buildings." "He lives in the same *block* with me." *Common*.

*Boatable*. "Navigable with boats."—a useful word.

*Boating*. "Conveying by boats."—not in use in England, but as good a word as *cartering* or *ploughing*—we hear also of *wagoning*.

*Brush*. "Brittle." In this sense the word is American. But it is not difficult to see how it originated. *Brush*, in the North of England, signifies "Twigs or *Brush*"—slender, fragile branches; and hence it has been used adjectively in the sense of brittle.

*New England*.

*Bread stuff*. "Bread—corn, meal, bread."

To *bridge*. "To make a *bridge*"—an

instance of the change alluded to, under *Association*. *North*.

\* *Brief*. Is a *North of Englandism*—as “the wind is brief”—that is, is prevalent or strong. A traveller, hearing the above expression in Virginia, inquired of the driver what the word meant. It meant he replied, “that the wind was a *sort a peart*.”

\* *Bug*. This, in England, is used merely for the bed-bug; except in one or two cases where it has a distinctive epithet—as may-bug, lady-bug &c. In this country it is applied to almost every insect that flies, but by others is restricted to the Coleoptera.

\* *Case*. Tobacco is said “to be in case” when soft and pliant; or in condition to be packed away in casks without loss. *Southern States*.

\* *To catch up*. “To overtake—Kentucky.

\* *Cache*. A term used in the western country, for a hole dug in the ground for the purpose of preserving and concealing such provisions and commodities, as it may be inconvenient for the travellers to carry with them. This is from the French, *cachier*, to conceal.

\* *To calculate*—“to expect”—as “I calculate to leave town tomorrow.” In Virginia—I reckon is used in this sense.

\* *Caucus*. “A political, preparatory meeting”—derivation not known. Pickering thinks it is from *Caulker*; these meetings having been first held in a part of Boston, where all the ship-business was carried on.

\* *Cavault or Cavort*. Ranting, high-flying.—*West*.

\* *Chance*. A supply, a quantity—“he lost a right smart *chance* of blood”—vulgarism of the *Southern States*.

\* *Cent*. The coin—the hundredth part of a dollar.

\* *Centrality*. “The quality of being central.” *Fr.* a good word.

\* *Checkers or chequers*. “*Draughts*.” The game. A term taken from the chequered state of the board. *New England*.

\* *Church, member of the*. “A professor of religion”—both of these phrases are

American and technical—“one who has publicly declared his assent to the creed of any church.” *Universal*.

\* *Clever*. “*Good disposition*.” “He is a *clever* fellow but of a week understanding.” The English *clever* is never applied except to qualities of the head. *New England*.

\* *Clothier*. “A fuller or walker.” *New England*. In England it is a “seller of cloth.”

\* *To cohogle*. “To bamboozle.” *Kentucky*.

\* *Cob*. “The spike of an ear of corn”—a “corn *cob*”—from German *Kopf*—head, and A. Saxon, *cop*. *Universal*.

\* *To concur*. “To assent to.” “The bill will not be *concurrent* by the senate.” *Northern States*.

\* *To conduct*. Used in New England without the pronoun. “He conducts well.” Instead of “he conducts himself well.”

\* *Congress*. Is used by us without the article. English writers generally say “the Congress” although they use Parliament without the article. *Congressional* naturally proceeds from the other; and both, arising from the new state of the country, are proper.

\* *Congregational, Congregationalism* &c. are technical, and relate to a church government by consent and election.—*Pickering*.

\* *Considerable*. As “he is *considerable* of a physician.” *New England*.

\* *Connections*. “*Relations* by marriage,” in contradistinction to those by blood. As “he is a *connection* of mine.” *Relations*, in England, includes all.

\* *Consociation and consociational* are technical—and relate to “a convention of pastors and messengers of churches.” *Webster*.

\* *To convene*. “To be fit for, or convenient”—as “this road will *convene* the public, or be convenient for the public.” *New England*.

\* *To cork*. “To shoe a horse with points—or with frost nails.” Perhaps from this word, which is old English, comes the *cawker*, quasi *corker*, placed

under the wooden shoes of the *Cumbrians*. (See *Dialects of Cumberland*, in *Museum* p. 258.)

*Corn*. "Indian corn." In England it comprises all the *Cerealia*, used for bread; hence, "*corn laws*"—*corn market*." When applied to the food of the horse in England it means oats singly. *Corn blades*—the leaves of Indian corn. *Southern States*.

*\*Coudript*. Thrown into fits. Kentucky.

*County*. Mr. Pickering states that this word is sometimes used along with shire; as the county of Hampshire. County and shire mean the same thing. The Pleonasm should be avoided.

*Creature*. Much employed in New-England for horses, oxen &c.; this extensive signification is probably obtained from Ireland. In Virginia, the word is often restricted to the horse. "I've got no creature to ride."

*Creek*. "A small river." *Southern and middle states*.

In New England it has the correct English signification; a part of a sea, lake or river running into the land. Mr. Pickering erroneously limits it to the sea.

*\*Dedodgement*. "Exit"—Kentucky. *To depreciate*. "To fall in value;" as "*corn depreciates fast*;" never used as a neuter verb in England.

*To derange*. "To disarrange." We notice this, only to exhibit the absurdity of Pseudo critics. The *British Critic* objected to this word in *Washington's official letters*, after it had actually been used in a previous volume of the very same review. Almost every remark on Americanisms, in that presuming publication, exhibits, that the reviewer was grossly ignorant of his own tongue.

*Desk*. Sometimes used in New England for the pulpit. In England, there are, in the Episcopal churches, a reading desk and a pulpit. This may have given rise to the use of the word here.

*Dime*. From French, *Dime*, the tenth part—a silver coin the value of ten cents.

*Disremember*. A totally unnecessary word, used in the *Southern states* for "to forget; not remember."

*\*To district*. To lay off into districts. *To Doom*. "To tax at discretion." *New England*.

*Doomage*. Is, hence, a fine or penalty.

*\*Done*. A prevalent vulgarism in the *Southern states*; as "*done gone*," "what have you *done* do?" Only heard amongst the lowest classes; probably obtained from Ireland.

*Dutiable*. Subject to duties; a very intelligible compound.

*Eagle*. A gold coin, value ten dollars.

*Educational*. "Pertaining to education"—like *accommodational* &c.

*\*Elegant*. This word, like handsome, is employed hyperbolically in the south. We hear of "*an elegant beef* &c."

*Equally as*. For "equally"—a pleonasm as "*equally as well*."

*\*Expect*. "Apprehend"—as "I expect you left Richmond yesterday."

*\*Expose*. For "exposé"—an exposition. This is very common; and has arisen from the adoption of the word from the French, without accenting the final e. (See *Museum* p. 12.)

(To be continued.) *See p. 457.*

#### RIDING THE STANG.

*Riding the Stang* is a punishment—amongst the vulgar in many parts of England and Scotland—inflicted upon fornicators, adulterers, rigid husbands and such persons as follow their occupations during particular festivals or holidays, or at prohibited times, when there is a stand or combination amongst workmen, technically termed a *strike*. Offenders of this description are mounted astride on a long pole or *stang*, borne on the shoulders of their companions. On this painful seat they are carried about the neighbourhood, attended by a crowd of children, huzzaing and throwing all kinds of filth. When the culprit, himself, cannot be laid hold of, a boy mounts the stang; but he is unmolested, though attended with the same tumultuous cries. The boy proclaims, that it is not on his own account, that he is thus treated, but that he is the representative of another whose offence he names. School boys are *stanged* by the

other scholars for breaking, what they call, the rules or orders of the school. The ceremony is also resorted to, when a woman has gained an improper ascendancy over her husband, so as to make him bear every species of indignity. In this case, it is called, "riding the stang for a neighbour's wife." A man is placed in the same uneasy situation as before described, so that he may be supposed to represent, or to sympathize with, his hen pecked friend, whose misery he sometimes laments in doggerel rhyme, applicable to the occasion.

He is carried through the whole neighbourhood, with a view of exposing or shaming the lady and thus preventing farther outrages on the person of her suffering spouse.

This mark of disgrace would appear to be of antient origin. The Goths were wont to erect, what they called the *nidstang* or pole of infamy, with the most dire imprecations against the person, who was thought to have deserved the punishment. He, who was subjected to this dishonor, was called *niding*, or the infamous, and was disqualified from ever giving evidence in any juridical matter. RD. 15

#### LUCY ALLYNNE.

#### *A tale—in three chapters—CHAPTER II.*

We, Hermia, like two artificial gods,  
Have with our needs created both one flower,  
Both on one sampler, sitting on one cushion,  
Both warbling of one song, both in one key;  
As if our hands, our sides, voices, and minds,  
Had been incorporate. So we grew together,  
Like to a double cherry, seeming parted;  
But yet a union in partition,  
Two lovely berries moulded on one stem:

*Mid-Nights' Dream.*

2 *Serrt.* Nay I know by his face that there was something in him: he had, Sir, a kind of face, methought,—I cannot tell how to term it.

1 *Serr.* He had so; looking, as it were,—Would I were hanged, but I thought there was more in him than I could think.

2 *Serr.* So did I, I'll be sworn: he is simply the rarest man i' the world.

*Coriolanus.*

Among the occurrences of life which suggest to us emotions of melancholy, there are few more lively in this respect than the gradual withdrawing of a carriage that conveys from us a valued friend. There is something inexpressibly affecting in the first transition from bustle to solitude; our feelings increase with the separation, and

when, at last, we turn to depart, it seems as if nature had altered its aspect, and that no other being in the world could supply the loss of that which had faded, as it were, from our sight.

Lucy experienced this feeling the more intensely that it was new to her. Whilst a glimpse of the stage could be seen, she stood with the tears slowly gathering in her eyes, gazing on the one object that absorbed her thoughts. And when she gave way to affliction, in solitude, the hopes of the preceding day seemed to mock her feelings.

The morning was raw, and damp, and before she had been summoned from her retreat by Mrs. Mostyn, our heroine had already exposed herself to a severe cold. During all that day, affairs wore a very different aspect from what they had exhibited on the preceding. The reserved and haughty manners of Mrs. Mostyn, the rudeness and folly of many of the younger girls, and the levity of some among the elder, were unpleasant to Lucy. Even trifling things had power to give her pain. It seemed as if she had been suddenly endowed with a nicer perception of the coarse and unsightly, and wondered that every thing at home, even to the articles of domestic use, should possess so much symmetry.

As her cold increased, and brought with it the lowness and stupor attendant upon fever, matters grew worse. Mrs. Mostyn was kind, but it was a formal kindness, scrupulously dealt to all like, and measured to the occasion with the accuracy of a medical prescription. This was very different to what Lucy had been accustomed. What was worse, she had no experience to tell her that the mind would quickly adapt itself to its situation, and hide all that was unsightly under its own flowers. This want of experience in the young, united to their more acute sensibility, and ready imagination, makes the first parting from home a very serious evil; many a new-breeched-exile feels as deeply on this first expatriation, as he would, in after life, if banished to Siberia.

The next day Alice Mostyn returned from a visit. She appeared to feel the deepest anxiety for Lucy; sat by her bed side, and told her a thousand amusing anecdotes of their neighbours.

As the fever abated the colouring of

things began to improve. Lucy's spirits returned; and her mind, urged by the ruling wish to relieve her mother, whom, since their separation, she loved more tenderly than ever, saw affairs in a different light. She had got a motive for exertion, and exertion, she soon found, was another name for happiness.

One day, after Alice had been amusing Lucy with some ridiculous caricature, she felt her spirits more than usually buoyant. "Well! I have got a friend now, and with a friend I could endure any evil. The world from all I have seen of it, is well enough to those who are young;" Lucy hesitated, and added, laughing, "except when our friends leave us, or when we have a fever. What a delightful thing is friendship! there is certainly something in the eye; and an expression in the voice that enables us to read the heart. I have known Alice but a day, and I already love her as a sister. Mamma told me to be very cautious in my friendships, and so I intend to be, but we cannot help loving those we know to be good." And, as Lucy said this she thought of the faces which looked at her in her dream, and of the music that floated upon the air, and she heaved a scarcely audible sigh, and began humming, unconsciously, to herself.

"To catch the rapture of thy tongue

The music of thy speaking."

when the voice of Alice was heard over her shoulder.

"Upon my word Lucy I did not know you had such deep cause for sorrow; I really thought it was only your mother leaving us that had thrown you into a fever. "The music of thy speaking," very pretty indeed, and well adapted to the rest of the words, I found them the other day in pencil in your bed room, did *he* write them?"

Lucy blushed deeply, but she was a candid girl, and having little to betray, told Alice all that had passed regarding Lieutenant Murray and the serenade. Her friend recognized the person spoken of, and told some anecdotes respecting Lieutenant Murray that shocked Lucy, and made her doubt whether poodle heads, and sweet voices were such sure indications of belonging to that great class of mankind, (so Lucy thought it,) the good, as she had before been inclined to imagine.

Lucy was well enough in a few days to take an afternoon walk with the girls. As

they passed through the town, Alice pointed out Lieutenant Murray; who, with a party of young officers, was talking to three elegantly dressed ladies. The dashing appearance of the latter, excited a feeling approaching to envy, perhaps to jealousy, in Lucy's bosom. She did not think them very handsome, but she feared that her timid and retiring nature could never attain the elegant ease and self-possession of these ladies. At this moment Alice whispered something in her ear which made her tremble; and when she looked again at the fashionable party, it was with feelings of disgust and horror.

"Well Lucy," said Alice, as they retired that evening to their chamber, "does your heart still beat for Lieutenant Murray?"

"It never did beat for him Alice?" replied Lucy, laughing and blushing.

"No, I dare say not! and you never rose from your warm bed as a second Juliet!—she was just fourteen you know Lucy?"

"But I shall be sixteen next January!" (it was then May.)

"Don't you wish it was night Lucy? He will certainly sing to night,

"Gallop apace, you fiery footed steeds,  
And bring in cloudy night immediately.

Spread thy close curtain, love performing night,  
That run-away's eyes may wink; and Romeo  
Sing to his love, untalked of and unseen."

"I don't think it was he who sang Alice, the sentiment was too delicate."

"Oh certainly not! so sensual a man as Lieutenant Murray could never reach such truth and nature,

Its own enchanted woods among

The nightingale is seeking

To catch the *magic* of thy tongue

The *music* of thy speaking!

Come! come! own Lucy that you love the dear poodle."

"How strangely you talk Alice! I am just beginning school, and is it not out of all question that I should think of love yet? Indeed! indeed! I have told you the truth of Lieutenant Murray; I never thought more of him than as a pleasant man; but love you know Alice is"—here Lucy stammered a little, and, not having a better excuse for silence, threw back her well turned neck, and grasping, with one hand, her flowing hair, that almost reached to the floor, began with the other, to comb the locks tell they shone like the sleek ra-



ven's wing. But her tormentor had reasons for not letting her escape this way, so throwing herself into an easy chair in a state of negligent deshabille, that showed a white bosom to much advantage, Alice continued her interrogatories.

"Well! and what is love like?"

"Oh quite another thing! Though I am sure I never felt it for any one—but—"

"But who?"

"Mamma and you Alice; which you know is not love at all, but affection."

"And you really, then, never felt love that was love?"

"Never! I assure you," and she took the comb out of her hair, to make the assevation more striking. "I never was in love with any one, and I never could be with a man who gambles—who—poor thing!—how shocking!—did you say her name was Ellen?"

"Nonsense child" replied Alice, who, quite satisfied upon one point, began to feel a little sore upon another, "you know nothing of the world, those men always have the best hearts who are just a very little wicked."

Lucy had too much good sense to agree to this doctrine. "A very little wicked Alice?" would you call a man more handsome for being a very little ugly? And is it, indeed! *so little* to entice people into amusements that you may rob them? Or,—oh dreadful! No never! never! I might forgive a man who injured another in business, but what must they be whose pleasures are wrong from the agony of their fellow creatures, of their best friend, the poor trusting, loving. "Oh my God!" (it was the only time, *but one* she ever made such an appeal;) "how I detest a gambler or—"

"What Lucy?"

"*A libertine!*"

"You are very free! Lucy, with these names, for one so young," said Alice, and went to bed in a less joyous humour than she had commenced the conversation.

Months rolled away, and every day Lucy became more happy: constantly employed, she had no time but for happiness, which is the natural state of human existence when occupation directs our desires, and confines our busy thoughts within their proper channels. Still enthusiastic in the cherished scheme of supporting her mother, Lucy found nothing repugnant in labours

which could be instruments of her success, As it is the want of a sufficient motive which renders labour irksome; so its presence can supply almost supernatural powers. It is this which made the artists of ancient Greece, and of Italy in the middle ages, surpass what men have since been able to effect. They had motives which exist in a less degree now. Their works were to be adored; they were types of divinity, capable of impressing with awe even those by whose hands they were fashioned.

Something of this kind entered into the feelings of Lucy. Her purpose was a holy one; she felt how much she could love *another* who had acted thus, and her bosom swelled at the thought of making that imaginary *other* her future self.

When the labours of the day were done, it was the custom of the school, for the girls to take an evening walk. They commonly chose those delicious lanes, or rather paths, with close green hedges, and white gates, that are to be found in the neighbourhood of Newport, and which lead to meadows upon whose vivid green the eye delights to repose.

Here the younger girls amused themselves with games, whilst the elder strolled arm in arm along the velvet turf, and gathered wild flowers, or spoke of their mutual affections, or of their own homes and friends. Lucy delighted to hear others talk of these things, but home was an unpleasant theme to her who had no home, beyond the school, or the bank where she was sitting. Whilst her devotion to Alice was exhibited in little attentions and unexpected kindnesses, rather than made a matter of explanation and analysis.

There was a nook shaded by tall silver birch trees that stood at one corner of her favorite meadow, where a shallow stream ran murmuring to the Medina.

The "quaint, old, cruel coxcomb," as Byron has somewhat harshly termed that old Fisher whose genius has thrown more poetry over the description of the Cheven, Chavender, or Chub;—albeit the French esteem the fish so mean as to call him *un vilain*, than most modern poems contain; would have been delighted with the spot. It might have been a companion to that meadow which he has so sweetly described: "turn out of the way a little toward yonder high honey-suckle hedge; there we

will sit and sing, whilst this shower falls so gently upon the teeming earth and gives yet a sweeter smell to the lovely flowers that adorn these verdant meadows.

"Look under that broad beech tree, I sat down when I was last this way a fishing. And the birds in the adjoining grove seemed to have a friendly contention with an echo, whose dead voice seemed to live in a hollow tree near to the brow of that primrose hill. There I sat viewing the silver streams glide silently towards their centre the tempestuous sea; yet sometimes opposed by rugged roots and pebble stones, which broke their waves and turned them into foam."

In this spot it was the favorite amusement of Lucy to retire with her companion Alice, and sit upon the grass, embroidering for her mother, a cap, a veil, or some delicate piece of female apparel, whilst they read by turns a tale of female excellence. Of these her favorite (whose favorite is it not?) was Elizabeth. There was something in the character of the exile congenial to her own. Lucy's predominant traits were attachment and gratitude, and Elizabeth, in whom these qualities are so happily portrayed, appeared to her as a sister; she wept as for a familiar acquaintance; and though, despairing ever to attain the self devotion and energy of her model, delighted in fancying her own situation a kind of moral Siberia. In reading this book she often dwelt with pleasure upon the kindness and manly virtues of Smoloff, and whether in running a parallel between her own situation, and that of Elizabeth she perceived Smoloff was wanting, or that the sentiment of love in the hearts of girls, comes, as the flowers and leaves, at its appointed season; it is certain that Lucy sometimes mused upon the faces and manners of the beaux and speculated about the hearts they might possess. Not that she ogled the youths on tiptoes from behind walls or windows, or wrote love verses on the gardener, or protested that the last young man she had seen with a girlish face, and arched eyebrows, was the handsomest man that ever was; or wondered why nobody fell in love with her; on the contrary her speculations generally terminated in wondering whether she should ever fall in love herself.

Along with the simplicity which amiable

minds are most apt to acquire in solitude, and the prevailing enthusiasm of her character, she had a large proportion of good sense. There was the raw material for that most lovely of beings, which it is scarcely a blunder to call a feminine woman, a gentle, retiring, sensible, confiding, delicate creature, lively or sedate as the moment requires, earnest in manner, yet never positive, a lovely, laughing imaginative being, with the heart of a mouse, that would shrink at a fly were it larger than usual; and shudder to hear, even, a tale of distress, which has yet been known under the incitement of affection, to smile at the most appalling of terrors, even to the stake and the axe.

We have said that Lucy was a pretty girl, and as military towns are not the places where beauty is hidden, it rarely happened that she walked abroad without receiving some testimony to the interest which her face inspired. The young men would turn through bye streets to come again in front, eyes were peeping round corners, or under the brims of hats, and, once, the grave city authorities were known to wheel in a body, on the Town Hall steps "to have a look full smack" (as *Liston* expresses it) in her pretty face."

In short Lucy never went through the town of Newport, but her face was kept in a perpetual blush, and the girls, as their brothers ran to the window, protested one and all, that it was a shame that young child Lucy Allynne should be allowed to paint as she did.

The admiring eyes that she met with in her path, could not fail to make an occasional bit, but the effect never lasted a day, the slight wound she had received from Lieutenant Murray, had made her particularly cautious, and all would have said that a more fortunate incident could not have occurred to her. But we are blind speculators in the great game of fate, and know not which incident to esteem fortunate, and which is pregnant with misery! From the feelings she had experienced on the night of the serenade, Lucy became sensible, both, that she possessed a heart which, once fairly permitted to love, would know no bounds, and that her first passion would decide the fate of her life. An event which occurred a few years previously, in Lucy's native

town, had taken a strong hold of her. A poor girl of excellent character, and light and joyous spirits, the life of imagination every party in the town, had united herself to a person, whose coarse mind, and unfeeling heart, were little fitted for such a union. From the marriage hour, the laugh was silent, the smile had faded from her lips, and Lucy, though a mere child, had seen with feelings whose remembrance was never to be effaced, the gradual progress of a heart, which broke in silence.

The affair of the officer from Addiscombe, that might have proved so dangerous to Lucy's peace, revived this story in her mind. She determined to preserve her affections unengaged until a more extensive acquaintance with the world might shield her from calamity which she most feared.

In the afternoon rambles, that Alice and Lucy were accustomed to take in the meadows of which we have spoken, it often happened that the latter would speak of her brother. "You must beware of your heart Lucy," she would say! "we expect him shortly from sea, and I can assure you that when he was last here all the girls were out of their senses about him."

Lucy considered this praise as the natural affection of a sister to a brother. Enthusiastic in her own attachments, she supposed that a sister would of course consider her brother as nearly perfect. But an object constantly praised by those we love cannot fail at last to interest us.

"Where is your brother now?" she asked one day.

"Cruising among the Greek Islands. He wrote to us last from Athens."

"How delightful," said Lucy, and it seemed to her, for the moment, as if persons who wandered in such beautiful places could not possibly be ugly or uninteresting.

"He sent us, a few months since, a beautiful translation of a song which the Gondoliers sang at Venice, it resembled that which you so much admired—"

"Did he," said Ellen, her attention augmenting with the increasing merits of the object.

"Yes indeed he did, he is quite a poet I assure you. And every body approves his taste. He sent me those Etruscan vases, and the shells you admired, and the corals

from Marseilles, and the Maltese chain. In short his friends seem never absent from his mind, I could make a map of the voyage from the presents he has sent me, figs from Lesbos, satin from Mondania, attar of roses from Scanderoon.

"What an excellent brother," said Lucy, and she sighed to think that she had no brother to send her memorials of friendship.

"Yes indeed he is; and an excellent son too—there are few that could have stood the trial he stood—to sacrifice even an honest pride to filial affection."

At the words trial, and filial affection, Lucy's attention became so absorbed that she was altogether off her guard, and manifested the most lively interest. "Tell me Alice" she said, "but indeed I am very impertinent to ask you—See here's a pretty flower. I will copy this in the basket we are making," and she blushed, and felt mortified at having inquired into matters which might be unpleasant to Alice.

"Oh there is no need for apology Lucy. Every body knows that my mother was a few years back in much pecuniary distress, and could not have relieved herself without Henry's assistance." Whilst these words were being uttered, Lucy was unconsciously pulling to pieces, leaf by leaf, the flower she was to copy, and giving its spoils to the winds. "Henry's messmates threw out hints, that he did not support his rank as became a gentleman in the King's service, and there were some, whom he said owed hundreds to their tradesmen, that sneered at him as a mean pitiful fellow, because I suppose he refused to order a coat he could not pay for, or join in the extravagancies of his honorable messmates, for most of them were men of family. Henry, a high spirited fellow, I assure you, refused with disdain the offer of his captain to be removed to another ship, and carried matters with so high a hand that he challenged the whole ward-room. Very dreadful consequences might have resulted, had not information been received that the French fleet was at sea. The ship joined the pursuing squadron; and the reputation which Henry gained for courage, added to his spirited conduct throughout the whole affair, made his brother officers ashamed of their conduct and tender a handsome apology. Poor

Henry! the prize money was acceptable enough to him, for as he regularly transmitted more than half his pay to Mamma, it was impossible, you know, that he could appear as a gentleman."

"Did he indeed?" cried Lucy suddenly dropping her flower, and pressing Alice's hands between her own. "Oh heavens! how you must love him?"

The energy with which this was done threw Alice into a fit of laughter;—"La! there now! I told the girl to take care of her heart, and I do believe she has fallen in love with Henry before she ever saw him; well, as I live, I will tell him this."

Lucy was mortified both by the circumstance and the remark. Notwithstanding the favorable light in which she saw every thing that her friend did, it was impossible for a girl of her delicacy and feeling to avoid having remarked, in so close an intimacy, that Alice's mind was not cast in nature's finest mould. There was a coarseness in many of her notions and actions which rendered it probable she might put her threat into execution, and as Alice possessed a ready talent for embellishing the ludicrous, Lucy feared that she might be subjected to the ridicule of an utter stranger.

From this time, therefore, she was always silent when Henry Mostyn was the subject of conversation; yet she was anxious to be acquainted with a person whose ideas of friendship and filial devotion, seemed nearly to resemble her own. She was all attention when it appeared that Mrs. Mostyn was going to speak of her son; but that reserved and haughty woman was peculiarly silent on all that concerned her family. Once, or twice, when she heard the ship was expected home daily, and the feeling of the mother overcame the pride of the woman, expressions dropped from her lips, perhaps unconsciously, by which Lucy perceived that Henry was not only loved, but revered, and almost adored by his mother. This habitual reserve rendered doubly interesting a little incident that occurred about this time, the only occasion on which Mrs. Mostyn was known to mention the name of her son before the school. It was her custom, at the close of the day, to call the scholars about her, and, having caused them to kneel down, to pray with them to the Almighty. The simplicity of the language

she employed, opposed to the stern dignity of her manner, rendered these prayers peculiarly impressive. On the night in question, the incessant flashes of lightning, the peals of thunder, and tumultuous blasts of wind that threatened to tear the house from its foundations, had filled the greater number of the girls with terror. Alice had been weeping the whole day at the reports which were brought concerning the fearful state of the ocean. Her brother, she knew, must be at no great distance from their iron bound coast, and driving at the mercy of that tremendous gale. The ships at Spithead and the Mother Bank, dragging their anchors and running foul of each other in the darkness and terror of the night, were firing signals incessantly. It was fearful to think what must be the state of the ocean where there was no friendly island to break its force.

Mrs. Mostyn had appeared so tranquil and self collected during the whole day, that some of the less observant girls accused her of cold-heartedness. But at the close of their evening prayer, she made a momentary pause, and in a voice whose calmness was evidently the effect of extreme exertion, put up a petition for the safety of her son, so simple and yet so touching, that the most insensible of the girls were affected, and Lucy sobbed outright.

As Lucy, on the morning after this event, was looking over some books which had been left in her apartment, she found a drawing book of Alice's, in which, Lieutenant Mostyn had amused himself with sketching and writing verses. There were vessels in most of the striking situations which are familiar to those conversant with the sea: some, with half the strength of the crew employed in setting the fore-lower-course were coming right athwart the long-rolling surge, shewing their bows, gripe, and forefoot, and almost a third of the keel. Others, with their fore-topsails shaking in the wind, were in irons, as it is quaintly termed; in short, it were endless to describe the varied points of seamanship, which the technical pencil of Mostyn had rapidly thrown upon paper. Lucy, who had recently commenced taking lessons in drawing, and was just beginning to abandon the use of her ruler and little measures of tape, was surprised at a boldness and ef-

fect which surpassed even that of the drawing master. It did not occur to her that a perfect acquaintance, with the objects represented will give a freedom and effect which is otherwise unattainable.

The poetry was written in pencil, much after the same careless manner as the sketches; the greater part composed, apparently, at a heat, but there were here and there, interlineations and various readings, that proved the author to possess more taste in perceiving defects, than practice in avoiding them.

The part that was most connected ran as follows:—

### THE SEA.

#### I.

'Tis sweet to trace the vaulted sky,  
And slumbering wave, deceive the eye  
With tints departing less and less  
In their ethereal loveliness.

In every state, in every form,  
The glassy wave, the roaring storm,  
I love the dread, unfathomed, lone,  
And boundless ocean. Unto me  
Its waters have a melody,  
A stern delight and ecstasy,  
In every varied tone.

#### II

'Tis sweet to dream what lands may be  
Beyond that term of air and sea:  
What monsters through the deserts rove,  
How zephyrs court the Indian grove.

In every state, &c.

#### III.

'Tis sweet to mark the timid morn,  
Of shadowy darkness newly born,  
Reflected in that glass to trace  
The blushing glories of its face,  
As fade the robes of night away  
And morning ripens into day.

In every state, &c.

#### IV.

I've roamed o'er many a sea and know  
What waters are when tempests blow,  
How stars beset the waning moon,  
And lurid suns go dimly down,  
How oft bewailing sounds of death  
Presage the tempest's fatal breath—  
That strikes upon each quivering shroud,  
Fit chord!—its measure wild and loud,  
And, heard between, a fearful knell!  
Clangs stern and deep the sullen bell!

In every state,

The verses seemed well adapted to denote the firmness of the writer's character, and the deep interest which he entertained for his profession. There was an unfinished stanza which ran in this way:—

I shrink with awe, when darkness shrouds  
The tempest in its murky clouds,  
O hear the signal booming sweep  
In thunder o'er the howling deep,  
To view beneath the lurid light  
Of that red signal gun at night,  
How gleam the breakers, ghastly white,  
The sable hull—the rigging torn—  
The boatless decks—the topmasts shorn—  
The men—the hopeless groups of men  
Who ne'er shall view their homes again,  
I see them all—can any be  
Who such have known and love the sea?

In any shape, &c.

Lucy shuddered when she remembered that the writer might himself have been an actor in this fearful drama, but her fears on this head were quieted by Alice, who, at that moment, came running into the room, almost wild with joy, to say, that her brother's ship, the Tenedos frigate had ran up to the Mother Bank, not a quarter of an hour before. For a few hours, every face in the school seemed to partake of the general joy; but, towards evening, news was brought, that the Tenedos in coming home, had touched at Gibraltar; that she was ordered into quarantine, and consequently, for forty days, no communication could take place with the shore.

One evening after this event, the girls directed their walk towards the opposite side of the town to that commonly assigned them; with the purpose of gathering nuts in a copse, whose nuts were in most repute. Lucy had strayed from the rest, and was busily employed, gathering some of the finest, as a present for Mrs. Mostyn; when she saw a boat approach the shore. The annual Regatta of the Cowes Yacht Club had taken place the day before. The persons in the boat wore the uniform of that club. As Lucy knew that this body counted among its members some of the most distinguished persons in the kingdom, she regarded them with more attention than she might otherwise have done; secure from observation in a thick bush of hazel.

The boat was a light six oared cutter, of a verdigris green. But what chiefly attracted Lucy's attention was the appearance of the person in the bows. He was a man full six feet high, but with a length and contour of limb that became his dress admirably. This last was of the simplest description; striped trowsers and waistcoat,—shoes, and mottled stockings—a blue silk handkerchief, tied loosely about his throat, a plain blue sailor's jacket completed his attire. But you could see a dozen yards off that the cloth was of the best quality, that Stultz himself must have cut the jacket and trowsers: the mottled stockings too were by no means of worsted, and not a spot was to be seen on the well blacked shoes.

You could perceive through the plebeian dress the aristocrat who might defy even the most casual observer, to mistake his true rank for a moment.

As he stood in the bows of the boat, balancing the long boat hook, Lucy thought that she had never beheld a more noble figure; neither was she displeased with his face, but thought, on the contrary, that features which could pass through all the transitions of severe grave or gay and preserve their dignity in each, were precisely such as she admired.

As the boat was about to touch the shore, it became evident there was some joke between him and his companions: he smiled and showed teeth that would have delighted a dentist, glanced his laughing eye for a moment over his shoulder, and then striking the quivering pole into the sand, made a spring of at least nine yards, and lighted a yard beyond the water's edge.

There was a little laughing fellow of an Irishman in the stern sheets—who jumped up on the instant, and placing his foot on the gunwale, without pole, or help of any kind, made a leap that was altogether prodigious, he certainly cleared two and twenty feet, but judging his distance badly, came, ankle deep, into the water. In an instant these two were off like the wind. It seemed to be a race for a wager. The course which they took led, by a long detour, past the very spot where Lucy was standing. In turning the bush, the foremost was well nigh running against her. When at this instant his companion called out—"Luff up! and take a reef in your

taupsal\* Mostyn, you're too long in the forefoot for me!"

Lucy's eye glanced downward to her dress, and she would have given the world to have had on a cleaner apron.

\* The nautical way of pronouncing *topsail*.

PZ.

END OF CHAPTER II.

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## OBITUARY.

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### COUNT DARU.

Died, recently, at the age of 62, at his seat near Paris, the Count Daru. He was born in 1767 at Montpellier, and may be considered one of the most eminent statesmen whom the French Revolution brought forward.

His education, until the age of 16, had been carefully attended to; but, at this period, excited, like most of the young men of France by the principles which gave rise to the revolution, and seeing that a career of glory was open to him, he entered into the military service of his country. In the history of the eventful domination of Napoleon his name frequently occurs with the most flattering mention. In the years 1805, 1806 and 1809 he was appointed Intendant general in Austria and Prussia—an office which could hardly fail to make the incumbent odious to the Germans, if he rigidly executed his duty.

In all his occupations, whether in the cabinet or the field he seems to have prosecuted his favorite pursuits—poetry and literature. His reputation as an author was first established by what is said to be, for we have never met with it, an excellent translation of Horace. The first edition of this appeared about the year 1800, and about the same time he published his "*Cleopédie*"—or theory of literary reputation—a poem. Napoleon, with that penetration for which he was so distinguished, soon discovered the talents of Daru and admitted him to his personal favour; and the poet continued devotedly attached to him, during the period that Napoleon swaged the destinies of France and of Europe. He was appointed to situations of the greatest confidence; and always filled them in a manner, that accorded with the interests of his country and his sovereign. As a member of the council of state he was es-

teemed extremely active and industrious. There was, indeed, scarcely a post of importance in the government which Daru had not filled. At the first restoration he held the portfolio of the war department, when Blucher exhibited his dislike to him, by a sequestration of his possessions near Meulan; but this unjust decision was instantly abrogated, as soon as intelligence of it reached the ears of the allied monarchs.

In the year 1818 he was called by Louis the XVIII to the Chamber of Peers.

Since 1805 he had been a member of the National Institute.

After the second restoration having held no public office, Daru devoted himself to his favorite studies; and to his genius and industry we are indebted for two important, historical works: the life of Sully and the history of Venice. The latter appeared in 1819 in seven volumes; and a second edition was issued in 1821 in eight volumes. As a member of the Chamber of Peers he was one of the most zealous defenders of the principles which the revolution had engendered.\*

His obsequies were celebrated, in the middle of September last, at the church of St. Thomas Aquinas in Paris. The four corners of the pall were held by Marechal Maison, M. Fourier, Comte de Cessac, and the Duc de Bassano. Peers of France, *Sarans*, artists and several military detachments escorted the hearse to the churchyard of Montmartre, where the celebrated Cuvier, Ternaux and Silvestre de Sacy pronounced funeral orations over the body—sketching the life of their friend, enumerating his private virtues and eulogizing his talents, which, certainly, were of no ordinary kind.

\* *Conversations-Lexicon. Art. Daru.*

## CONVENTION.

(Continued from page 414.)

Mr. Morris of Hanover, in continuation. In speaking of the promised moderation with which the power was to be exercised, said that the same thing may take place under a despotism, but it was the authority to oppress, that constituted the grievance. He adverted to the constitution of Georgia and the Carolinas, as precedents to warrant the principle of the compound basis. He then pointed out the difference between the East and

the West in their liability to oppression; as it would be easy to make taxes fall exclusively, or most heavily, on the East, but it would be impracticable to tax the West, without taxing the East also. He cited an instance of a tax on cattle during the late war, which, though expected to bear principally on the West, produced more from the East. He spoke of the effect of a heavy tax on slaves, which may compel the master to get rid of them by emancipation or some other mode; and said if the separation should be produced by the agency of the government, it might lead to the most direful consequences. 'The relation between master and slave cannot,' he said, 'be left to be regulated by the government.' He would never consent that the West should lay taxes on the slaves, 'when their owners had no voice in the matter.'

Mr. Campbell, of Brooke, said that he was not under the influence of local feelings, but was governed by principles. He regretted that the principles of the Constitution had not been settled before the instrument was formed. He said that in politics, as in all other sciences, there were fundamental principles; and that "more than the half of every speech had been in favor of mere abstractions," as they were called. He cited some examples of these general political principles. He said that his remarks tended to establish the following propositions:—

1. "That the principles of the friends of this amendment are based upon views of society, unphilosophic and anti-republican."

2. "That the basis of representation which they advocate, is the common basis of aristocratical and monarchical governments."

3. "That it cannot be made palatable to a majority of the freeholders of Virginia;" and

4. "That the white population basis will operate to the advantage of the whole state."

He objected to Mr. Morris's arguments as being founded on mere 'assumptions,' and to his doctrine concerning majorities. He noticed Judge Green's axiom, 'that all men have equal natural rights, but not equal political rights;'—and insisted that 'conventional rights' ought also to be equal. He complimented the energy of character, and industrious habits of the western population.

In answer to Judge Upshur, he said, that a majority of interests should be no more regarded than a majority of talents, physical strength, &c. He showed that the principle of the amendment might give a poor man, in the neighbourhood of a rich one, more weight than a wealthy man in the neighbourhood of many poor ones, and was thus inconsistent with itself.

He traced the origin of the article in the Bill of

Rights, 'that all men are born free and independent,' to Locke. If this principle were true, he thought it could not be dangerous. He maintained that the cases cited by Mr. Barbour, of Orange, in which these majorities are not allowed to prevail, had no application. That the right of majorities to govern is to be found in the social character of man, and in the nature of things, and gave an illustration from a supposed case of a few individuals about to form a community. He insisted that the Right of Suffrage was anterior to society. He said if power should be conferred according to wealth, it would create an oligarchy.'

He then shewed that, in the new distribution of power on the white basis, whatever was lost in the extreme East and extreme West, would be gained by the middle districts, which would be 'the safest deposit the slaveholder could desire.' He then referred to the services and sufferings of the western militia, during the late war, to show that they had common interests and feelings with the East; these services too, he regarded as some set-off against the inequality of taxes, which would, moreover, be every day diminishing. He spoke of the discontents and mischiefs which would follow the adoption of the compound basis, and the yet greater evils of severing the state. He thought too, the policy supported by the East, not only 'anti-republican, but short sighted,' and spoke of the fluctuations of property, as furnishing strong reasons why those who now possess it, should not invest it with great privileges, which would so probably operate against their own offspring.

October 31. Mr Stanard in the chair.

Mr. Scott of Fauquier, proposed, to amend Judge Green's amendment by adding, "*and in the senate, the white population exclusively,*" and on the question, addressed the committee. He said, that his constituents had united with the people of the West in bringing about this convention, but 'I fear' said he 'that they are likely to prove Roman allies, and that we shall only have the privilege of changing our masters.'

He said that all the questions which could arise, were mere questions of the 'fitness of means to an end,' which end was to secure liberty to the people of Virginia and their posterity. He spoke of the several expedients which had been resorted to, to prevent the abuse of power; as to give no more than was necessary; and to distribute it into several departments; and he considered this also to be necessary: 'as far as practicable, to deposit power in the hands of those only, whose interest it is not to abuse it.' He then dilated on the powerful and universal influence of *interest*, as constituting the

chief difference between republican, and other governments, and which could alone afford security to the East.

After showing, by reference to documents and admissions of other gentlemen, that the country west of the Blue Ridge either does now, or soon will, contain a majority of the white population, he adverted to the difference of the two, in the taxes they paid, and the number of slaves they held. He stated that the slaveholding counties in the West could afford no protection, as even in these, the slave holders were not more than one fourth of the voters.

He next spoke of the influence the present question may have in future apportionments of the members of Congress in Virginia, and said that the seven members, 'purchased,' as it were, by the slaveholders, will be divided as common property, between the East and the West. He argued that if such a distribution were forbidden by a constitutional proviso, plausible arguments may be found to violate it, drawn from the Constitution of the United States. He then adverted to the different interests of the East and the West, as to internal improvements, and referred to the Charlottesville convention, and the scheme of improving the internal navigation of the state, proposed in the last legislature, to show the small comparative interest of the middle district. He referred also to the money expended on James River, for the same purpose, and he insisted that power should be so apportioned, as to protect these different interests.

Mr. Naylor, of Hampshire, after stating the points in controversy, insisted on the right of the majority to govern, and appealed to the general assent of the people to this principle. He justified the resort to elementary principles in government, as well as in other sciences; and to the supposition of a state, prior to society, for the sake of ascertaining those elementary principles. He denied that the Right of Suffrage, which he maintained to be original and inherent, should be affected by property, as the rule would not only be unjust, but fluctuating. He insisted that the equality claimed by him for the poor man was a less evil than the inequality claimed by others for the rich man, in the degree that personal liberty is of more value than money. He showed how the poor man might be oppressed, by working on the roads, by poll taxes, double militia duty &c.; and the unreasonableness that the rich man, who is in no danger except from money bills, which are but as one in fifty, should have the controul of the other forty-nine. He said that political power was necessary to defend natural rights. He dwelt on the natural



influence of wealth as a reason it should not be clothed with legislative power; and added that the power contended for by the East, if distributed equally among its districts, might subject the rich in a minority of those districts to the poor in a majority. Nay farther, that the additional weight acquired by a single county, would, from the unequal distribution of property, increase the power of the poor more than that of the rich. Nor could this danger be effectually guarded against, except, by giving, to each individual, votes in proportion to his wealth, which no man would endure, and he presumed no one would attempt. He referred to the present constitution of France. He spoke of the past complaints of the West, and of the feelings of disappointment which the present proposition would occasion. He added that in the confidence of the 'march of public sentiment,' they would rather let the constitution remain for the present, unchanged. He contrasted the present declining state of Virginia, with her natural advantages, and asked what else her inferiority to other states 'could proceed from, but from a defect in her frame of government?' 'Let us remedy that,' said he, 'and see if Virginia is not regenerated, disenthralled, redeemed, and whether she will not again advance and regain the station she has lost.' He concluded, with noticing the arguments drawn from their want of canals and roads, and justified the aid his part of the state, (the North Western,) had asked, from the large grants which had been made to James River, but said that such unimportant incidents should have no influence on the present question.

Mr. John S. Barbour, of Culpeper, denied that the will of the majority should be the only rule of action. He said, that there were two securities necessary in our representative system. The first, "to secure the fidelity of the representation to the constituent body; the second, to guard one part of the community against the injustice of the other." He asked, if the will of the majority is alone to be regarded, "why is it that we have constitutions at all?" To shew that the fears of the east are unfounded, he relied on the predominant influence of self interest, and appealed to Mr. Doddridge whether he had not in 1823, avowed the propriety of basing our representation in Congress on the white population exclusively? He then referred to the opposition to the "defence bill," during the last war, from the western members, and some of the eastern also, from local considerations.

He insisted that no provision in the constitution, by way of guarantee, could be relied on, as it would be interpreted by the majority. He spoke

of taxation and representation as "inseparable correlatives;" referred to occasions in England, in which the principle had been acted on; he said it was the governing principle in the American Revolution; and is expressly recognized in the federal constitution. As to the numerous petitions that had been presented in favor of a convention, he said that many of the petitions if they had imagined that the effect would be to "take their money *ad libitum* and *ad infinitum*," they would have done as his constituents had done, "face to the right about;" for these very petitions for a convention had been accompanied with petitions for retrenchment.

Genl. Gordon of Albemarle said, that it was now attempted for the first time to introduce a principle at war with every notion which Americans had been taught to hold sacred, and which goes to make the elective power quadrate with *wealth*.

He then showed that the two middle districts of the state (lying on each side of the Blue Ridge) contain a majority of the white population, a majority of the slaves, and pay the major part of the taxes; yet in a house, containing two hundred and fifty delegates, these majorities are represented by only eighty-six members. He made other statements to prove that the extreme eastern and western districts had both more than their share of representation. Property, he said, in any just scheme of representation, is not to be regarded but as belonging to the whole of society; but when it is admitted to a share of power, as possessed by individuals, a *house of lords* is thereby created; and that the principle is the same, if power be given to a particular section of the state, because it has more property. He argued that as the non-slave holders were a majority in the state, adopt whatever basis they may, it could afford no additional security to the class of slave holders, if the right of suffrage is extended.

The cases adduced in which a mere majority were not allowed to prevail, he said, were exceptions to the general rule, and that to imitate them, would be "to make the medicine of the state its daily food." He denied also the force of examples drawn from England or France, as the first had at length become "little less than a military despotism," and that the evils of the French revolution "did not grow out of the misrule of the majority alone, but out of the resistance of a minority," and the existence of a privileged order.

As to taxation for internal improvement, he defended the west for having originated past schemes or mismanaged them, by a reference to

the James River, and Ohio and Chesapeake canals.

In answer to Mr. Barbour of Orange, he said, it is from *experiment* alone that *experience* is obtained, that our own free government itself is but an experiment which has happily succeeded, and that many of the other states had remodelled their constitutions, and no public calamity had ensued. He said that men do not form communities because they *suspect*, but because they *love* each other; and that our jealousy ought to be only against introducing the principles of aristocracy or monarchy in our constitution.

He adverted to the evils of not agreeing in any amendments to the constitution; said the fears of the east were unfounded, as they were now entitled to a majority of nineteen delegates, (in a house of one hundred and twenty) and he doubted whether there would even be a majority beyond the Alleghany; but that the black population would increase in the tide water district, whose policy it should therefore be to make friends of the majority. He insisted that the interest of the valley district was the same as that of the east, both from the course of their trade, and their being slave holders. Slavery, he said, is more equally diffused there than in the east.

The member then spoke at length in favor of extending the right of suffrage, and argued that as labour was the source of wealth, it was better entitled to representation than property. He insisted on the insufficiency of the checks that had been mentioned to the house of delegates; and said there was no one that was effectual except *responsibility to the people*.

After a short debate between Messrs. Mercer Johnson, Scott and Nicholas concerning the course of the discussion, and in explanation of the votes they should respectively give, on Mr. Scott's amendment proposing the "white basis," in the senate, and the "compound basis" in the house of delegates, the question was taken on that amendment, and decided in the negative, by forty nine votes to forty three, the friends of the principle of a mixed basis, generally now voting for the "white basis" in the senate, and the general advocates of a white basis voting against it.

Mr. Monroe then, for the first time, addressed the committee. He spoke of the divisions that existed concerning the constitution, and of the necessity for a conciliatory spirit; adverted to the ruinous consequences of severing the state. He then briefly stated the claims of the west and the east, spoke of the slave population, and the difficulties growing out of it, and the impossibility of getting rid of the difficulties by emancipation,

without the aid of the general government. He disclaimed all local feelings, spoke of the liberal conduct of Virginia towards Kentucky, and in her cession of the north western territory. To settle the present question he thought concession necessary on both sides. He was an advocate for an extension of the right of suffrage. He adverted to what he had seen both in France and England of popular excess, which had at first made him pause, but his objections had at length yielded to the convictions that they did not apply to our country, which differed from every "other nation on the face of the earth."

He thought the "arrangement of districts," and a protection of property by some reasonable guarantee, did not necessarily affect the question of equal rights. It would give no advantage to the rich over the poor in the same district. He adverted to two modes of effecting this object; one by combining white population with taxation, as in South Carolina, and giving each district its due share of representation, according to this combined ratio: the other, by taking white population for the basis of one house, and the combined basis for the other. If the latter course were taken, he recommended the compound basis for the senate, rather than the house of delegates. "The popular branch," he said, "will then originate every thing, according as they shall think most for the good of the country; and if, through the stimulus of heated feeling, they propose any improper measures, the senate will operate as an immediate check."

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#### JEFFERSON'S WORKS.

We see, by the late arrivals from England, that *Jefferson's Works* are about to be published in London by Colburn & Co. The whole number printed in Charlottesville (6000) has been subscribed for: and although the anxiety to possess them in the North is extreme, none of the present edition can go thither. It is to be hoped that the great demand for the work will induce the proprietor to publish a second edition as early as possible. E

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#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

*Examination.*—The intermediate examination of the University will be held about the middle of February.

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#### NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. 4c.

The communication of "A subscriber," and that of C. R. from Richmond have been received.

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## ON SUPERSTITION.—No. 2. (Continued from page 381.)

### OF THINGS LUCKY AND UNLUCKY.

"——— *o chi pur legger vuole*

"*Gli dia quella medesima credenza,*

"*Che si vuol dare a finzioni e fole.*"

ARIOSTO.

"——— if you do it read

"Esteem it not, but as an idle babble;

"Regard it not, or if you take some heed,

"Believe it not, but as a foolish fable."

SIR JOHN HARRINGTON.

1. It is reckoned a good omen or a sign of future happiness, if the sun shines on the wedding—day: whilst, for some unaccountable reason, the omen is considered less favorable to a corpse than if it should rain. Hence the old maxim:—

"Happy is the corpse the sun shines on,

"But happier is the corpse the rain rains on."

Or, as it is otherwise expressed.

"Happy the bride the sun shines on.

"And happy the corpse the rain rains on."

The favourable omens at christening, burial and marriage are thus, also, embodied in a popular, Scotch, stanza:—

"West wind to the bairn,

"When ga'an for its name;

"And rain to the corpse,

"Carried to its lang hame.

"A bonny blue sky

"To welcome the bride.

"As she gaugs to the kirk,

"Wi' the sun on her side."

2. The month of May was, by the ancients, reckoned an unfavourable time for marriage and so it is still in some countries.

3. Breaking a looking glass is esteemed extremely unlucky, but we do not see

why,—unless because it was formerly, and still is an expensive article—it is said, that after such an accident the party, to whom it belongs, will lose his best friend.

4. It is customary for people to offer to sit crosslegged, to procure luck at cards for their friends.—This, with the fingers interlaced, was, antiently, esteemed a magical posture:—turning a chair rapidly round on one of its legs is used for the same purpose, in imitation, probably, of the revolutions of the wheel of fortune.

5. If, in going a journey on business, a sow or hare should cross the road, you will probably meet with disappointment, if not with some accident, before your return home. To obviate this, an endeavour must be made to prevent its crossing you, and if that cannot be done, you must ride round on fresh ground. If however the sow be attended with her litter of pigs it is lucky and denotes a successful journey.

The *crossing* denotes misfortune—the litter of pigs—*abundance*: but why the omen is confined to the sow and pigs is not clear!

6. The magpie, *Corvus Pica* of Linnaeus, is by the vulgar, at present, in Great Britain, as it was formerly, considered a very ominous bird. During sickness in a family it is reckoned a very fatal sign if this bird takes its seat on the roof of the house. The magpie was reckoned an unlucky bird by the Romans.

The character of the omen is, however, in many places, determined by the number of birds seen sitting together. One, in the vicinity of a house, is esteemed harmless—indeed, it forebodes joy: two announce a birth, three a marriage, four death. In some parts of Scotland the following pop-

ular distich is repeated, concerning the character of the omen :

"Ane's joy,  
 "Twa's grief;  
 "Three's a waddin';  
 "Four's death."

The chattering of magpies, on a tree, presages the arrival of strangers at the adjoining house.

7. If, in a family, the youngest daughter shall be married before her elder sisters, they must all dance at her marriage, without shoes: this will counteract their ill luck and procure them husbands.

8. At a marriage, it is lucky for the bridesmaid to sign her name along with the new married couple, in the parochial books—she is likely to be married soon after.

9. On meeting a funeral procession, you must always take off your hat. It will keep all the evil spirits, attending the body, in good humour. This is an old superstition.

10. It is a common practice, among the lower class of dealers, on receiving the price of the first goods sold that day, which they term *hansel*, to spit on the money for luck. Spitting over the little finger confirms a bargain,—the *luck money* is constantly returned, in Scotland, on concluding bargains, from the superstitious idea of its ensuring *good luck* to the purchaser. It is now principally retained in selling horses and cattle; and many still consider that a bargain would not prosper were this formality to be neglected.

*Thumblicking* is also an antient mode of confirming a bargain—which continues to this day, in bargains of lesser importance, among the lower class of people, in Scotland, the parties licking and joining their thumbs; and decrees, according to Erskine are yet extant, in the records, sustaining sales" upon summons of thumb-licking, upon this medium, that the parties had licked thumbs at finishing the bargain, ("ERSKINE'S *Inst.* B. iii. T. 3 s. 5.)

The custom of ratifying contracts by the admixture of blood (usually drawn from the thumbs) of the contracting parties is very antient and very general. It has been common amongst the Goths, Moors, Scythians, Arabs, and has extended as far as, or originally existed in, Siam. It is even now, practised in many parts of civilized Europe, and of course must be known

amongst the descendants of Europeans on this continent.

11. Washing hands in the same basin, or with the same water as another person has washed in, is extremely unlucky, unless we spit in the water and then the affair is neutralised.

12. The *maiden*—the name given in Scotland to the last handful of corn, cut down by the reapers, on any particular farm and so called from its being dressed up with ribbons or strips of silk, in resemblance of a doll—has a superstitious idea attached to it. If reaped by a young person, it is considered a happy omen, that he or she will be married before another harvest. For this reason, perhaps, as well as because it is viewed as a sort of triumphal badge, there is a strife amongst the reapers, as to the gaining of it. Various stratagems are employed for this purpose. A handful of corn is frequently left, by one, uncut, and covered with a little earth to conceal it from the other reapers, till such time as all the rest of the field is cut down. The person, who is most cool, generally obtains the prize; waiting till the other competitors have exhibited their pretensions, and then calling them back to the handful which had been concealed.

In the north of Scotland, the maiden is carefully preserved till christmas morning, when it is divided amongst the cattle "to make them thrive all the year round."

If the maiden be cut after sunset, it is esteemed an extremely unlucky circumstance, it is called *witch*, being supposed to portend such evils as have been, by the vulgar, ascribed to sorcery (Jamieson's *Dictionary of the Scottish Language and Supplement*, art. *Maiden*.)

O that year was a year forlorn!

Lang was the har'et and little corn!

And, sad mischance! the *maid* was shorn  
 After sunset!

As rank a *witch* as e'er was born,

They'll nee'r forget!

13. It is deemed lucky to be born with a membrane or *caul*, technically the membranes of the Ovum, over the face. This is an antient and general superstition. *etre ne coiffée*, "to be born with a caul" expresses, in France, that a person is extremely fortunate—"that he has been born with a silver spoon in his mouth."

The caul is esteemed an infallible preservative against drowning, and, under this

idea is frequently advertised for sale in the British journals and purchased by seamen. Recently, one was offered for between "sixty and 90 dollars." It is related that midwives used to sell this membrane to advocates, as an especial means to render them eloquent : and one Protus was accused by the clergy of Constantinople of having offended in this article. According to Chrysostom the midwives frequently sold it for magical purposes. (Grose) A person possessed of a caul may know, it is believed, the state of health of the party who was born with it : if alive and well, it is firm and crisp ; if dead or sick, relaxed and flaccid !

14. A ringing in the ears, called in the South of Scotland—*Dede Bell* is regarded as a secret intelligence of some friend's decease.

"O lady, 'tis dark, and I heard the dead bell,  
"And I darena gae yonder for goud nor fee."

*Hogg's Mountain Bard.*

15. The *Turquoise* has been long imagined to change its colour, as the wearer is in good or bad health. To this superstition the old English writers have numerous allusions. Swan in his *Speculum mundi* observes "Turcois is a compassionate stone—if the wearer of it be not well it changeth colour and looketh pale and dim ; but increaseth to his perfectnesse as the wearer recovereth to his health." So also "old Ben" in his tragedy of *Sejanus*—

"And true as turquoise in the dear Lord's ring,  
"Look well or ill with him."  
and Cartwright.

"Or faithful turquoises, which heaven sent

"For a discovery not a punishment,

"To shew the ill, not make it, and to tell,

"By their pale looks, the bearer was not well."

16. It was an antient superstition, that all sudden consternations of mind and sudden pains of the body, as cramps, palpitations of the heart &c. were ominous and presages of evil.

"For God, my left leg gan to have the cramp,  
And I apprehended straight some power had struck me

With a dead palsy.

Ben Jonson.

17. The *Dede* or *Dead Candle* is a preternatural light, like that of a candle, seen under night, by the superstitious, and viewed as the presage of the death of some one. It is said, in the North of England, to be sometimes seen, for a moment only, either

within doors, or in the open air : and, at other times, to move slowly from the habitation of the person doomed to death to the church yard where he is to be interred.

18. The *Dead Drop* is another Scottish superstition—it is applied to a drop of water falling intermittingly and heavily on a floor and is viewed by the superstitious as a premonition of death.

19. The *Dead Knock* is a loud stroke as of a switch upon the door or bed, the cause of which is unknown : it is supposed, by the common people, to announce the death of the person who hears it.

20. If a candle burns blue it is a sign of ghosts, and of death, and is, accordingly, an ingredient in most of the ghost stories.

21. The *winding sheet*, in Scotland the *dede-spale*, is the part of the tallow of a candle, which, from not being melted, falls over the edge in a semi-circular form. By the vulgar it is viewed as a prognostic, that the person to whom it is turned will soon die.

22. If, in eating, you miss the mouth and the food falls, it is very unlucky and denotes approaching sickness.

23. It is supposed extremely unlucky to have a dead body on board a ship at sea.

24. Children are deemed lucky to a ship ; their innocence being, by the sailors, supposed to be a protection. To have a clergyman on board is very unlucky, unless, we presume, he be chaplain.

25. When a person goes out to transact any important business, it is lucky to have an old shoe thrown after him.

26. It is lucky to tumble up stairs—perhaps because it is unlucky to tumble down stairs.

27. Sneezing has been esteemed an article of premonition as it was of old with the Romans ; hence perhaps the origin of the prayer addressed by the antient Greeks to Jupiter when they sneezed, and the custom of saluting the sneezer which has descended to us, and is general in some of the European countries.

We know a native of Scandinavia who never omits the salutation of "your most obedient" on such occasions ; and, of old, at Leyden, the custom was carried to such an extent, that if any of the students, at that celebrated seat of learning, sneezed, during lecture, the Professor always bowed to him. In the time of Pliny, the naturalist, the compliment was one of the duties of

civil life; and he remarks, that the emperor Tiberius required this mark of attention and respect from all his suite, on all occasions.

When the African King of Sennaar sneezes, the courtiers turn their backs and give a loud slap on their right thigh; and when some travellers were admitted to a great religious ceremony in the Tonga Islands, all persons, amidst the most profound devotion, seemed suddenly horror struck and the travellers were turned out with indignation. The next day they humbly asked the meaning of so alarming a scene, when the King graciously informed them, that one of them had sneezed in the sacred edifice!

28. The *first foot* is the name given, in the north of England, to the person, who *first* enters a house, on *new year's day*—this is regarded, by the superstitious and credulous, as influencing the fate of the family, especially of the fair part of it, for the remainder of the year. To exclude all suspected or unlucky persons, it is customary for one of the damsels to engage, before hand, some favoured youth, who, elated with so signal a mark of female distinction—gladly comes *early* in the morning, and never empty handed.

29. It is unlucky to present a knife, scissors, razor or any sharp or cutting instrument, to one's mistress or friend, as it is apt to cut love and friendship. To avoid the ill effects of this, a pin, a farthing or some trifling recompense, must be taken. To find a knife or razor denotes ill luck and disappointment to the party.

30. Besides the magpie, before mentioned, there are certain birds which are affected by peculiar conditions of the atmosphere; and by their screams have been found to be foreboders of tempests, hurricanes and other violent atmospheric commotions. These were consequently considered unlucky omens, in general, acquiring an evil name from their utility as monitors. Thus, the crow, garrulous before stormy weather, was afterwards regarded as a prediction of general misfortune. Pliny, Virgil, Ovid and most of the Roman poets as well as the Greeks regarded it in this light. The feeling, attached to the owl, seems to have been extended to other nocturnal birds; a circumstance, which somewhat favors the idea, that they were dreaded, in a great measure, from being companions of dark-

ness and obscurity. Spencer has afforded a woful catalogue of harmful birds, in the second book of the *Fairie Queene*.

"Even all the nation of unfortunate  
 "And fatal birds about them flocked were,  
 "Such as by nature men abhorre and hate,  
 "The ill faced owle, death's dreadfull messenger;  
 "The hoarse night raven, trump of dolefull dreere;  
 "The leather winged bat, day's enemy;  
 "The ruefull strick still waiting on the bere;  
 "The whistler shrill, that whoso hears doth die  
 "The hellish harpies, prophets of sad destiny."

31. It is unlucky to walk under a ladder; it may prevent the person from being married that year.

32. The first time a nurse brings a child to visit its relations it is unlucky to send it back without some gift.

33. It is held extremely unlucky to kill a cricket, a lady-bug, a swallow, a martin, the robin redbreast of Europe (*Motacilla rubecola*, Linn.) or wren; perhaps from its being a breach of hospitality; all those birds and insects taking refuge in houses. A certain degree of the same feeling is extended to most of our domestic animals. There is a particular proverbial distich in favour of the robin and the wren.

"A robin and a wren  
 "Are God Almighty's cock and hen."

Persons, who may kill any of these birds or insects, or destroy their nests, will infallibly, within the course of a year, break a bone or meet with some other dreadful misfortune. On the other hand, it is deemed lucky to have martins or swallows building their nests in the eaves of a house or in the chimneys.

34. It is unlucky to lay one's knife and fork *crosswise*; *crosses* and misfortunes are likely to follow.

35. The old notion of lucky and unlucky days, which prevailed in antient Greece and Rome is still maintained by many persons, who have certain days of the week and month in which they are particularly fortunate, and others in which they are as generally unlucky; these days are different with different persons. Some days, however are commonly deemed unlucky; Friday is one of these, and it is generally held that no work should be commenced on that day.

Our old almanacks distinguished by particular marks, the days supposed to be favorable or unfavorable to buying and selling.

36. A particular sanctity has, by many nations, been believed to be lodged in salt; hence the expressions "divine" and "holy" salt, used by the antients. To scatter salt, by overturning the vessel in which it is contained, is very unlucky and portends quarrelling with a friend or fracture of a bone, sprain or some bodily misfortune.

This may, indeed, be, in some measure, averted, by throwing a small quantity of it over one's head. It is also unlucky to help another person to salt; but to whom the ill luck is to happen is not settled.

37. Whistling at sea will cause an increase of wind, if not a storm: and hence is disliked by seamen; but if it be a calm they whistle themselves—to raise the wind, or they scratch the mast with the same view.

38. It is unlucky to sit down to dinner, with thirteen at table; one of the party will be sure to die before the expiration of the year.

39. Lastly. Drowning a cat at sea is extremely unlucky.——

Such is an imperfect catalogue of the common, superstitious notions, regarding "*things lucky and unlucky*."

BP B

#### STEAM CARRIAGES ON RAIL ROADS.

We published in a recent number the results of some experiments, which had been made at Liverpool, with steam carriages. The wonderful effects, which may be anticipated, from this novel application of steam, have been thus stated in a late English Journal, after a description of those interesting and important experiments.——

There remains not the slightest doubt, in the opinion of the most skilful engineers, that we have it now in our power to command a velocity of thirty miles an hour on a level well made rail-road; or twenty-five miles allowing for all necessary stops.

Twenty years ago, we believe, the mails did not travel faster than about seven miles an hour. From seven miles it was raised to eight, and every one cried out what an improvement! from eight it was raised to nine, and this was hailed

as nothing less than "prodigious!" attempts are now making to force it up to ten miles an hour, but at any thing beyond this, to a certainty, horse power fails us. How, then, shall we find terms adequate to express the value of a discovery which lifts us at once from nine miles to twenty or twenty-four miles an hour?—which carries us as far beyond the speed of the mail, as the mail is beyond that of a brewer's dray, or a carrier's waggon?

The motion is so perfectly smooth and easy, that if the passenger closed his eyes, or fixed them on the inside of the carriage, or any distant object, he would not feel as if travelling faster than by an ordinary coach; but looking at the hedges, trees, or horses, close to the road, they appear to vanish like meteors, and the traveller gets an idea of the tremendous velocity of his movement; which, however, is so perfectly equable, that, travelling at the rate of twenty eight miles an hour, it is perfectly practicable both to read and write.

Were the vehicle nicely poised on springs, and covered in to exclude the external current of air created by its motion, you might imagine that you were in a state of perfect rest, while you are flying along the surface with the speed of a racer. Then the steam horse is not apt, like his brother of flesh and blood, to be frightened from his propriety by sudden panics which defy the prudence and skill of the driver. Explosion, if it takes place, will not injure the passengers, for they are in a separate vehicle, and the enginemmen may be trusted with the care of their own lives. The rails, too, which confine and regulate the motion of the engine and carriage, keeping them upon one invariable line, and that line perfectly smooth, lessen the chances of accident in a remarkable degree, as the proceedings at Liverpool show; for though scores of persons were hanging about the carriages, and thousands standing along the sides of the paths, and pressing within a few inches of the machines, while moving with their utmost speed, not a single individual received the smallest injury. In daylight, and

with good arrangements, travelling in the steam coach, at twenty miles an hour, may be much more safe as well as pleasant, than in a stage coach at eight or nine.

One of the great recommendations of this species of conveyance will be its cheapness. It is expected that goods will be carried from Manchester to Liverpool for less than 5s. per ton.\* Men, of

\* The second edition of an interesting report by Mr. James Walker, civil engineer and entitled "*Report to the Directors of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, on the comparative merits of locomotive and fixed Engines as a moving power*" has been recently published. Mr. Walker and Mr. Rastrick, eminent engineers, were employed by the Directors, in January last to report on the matters referred to in the title: and for this purpose, they visited all the principal railways in the North of England. The trade from Liverpool to Manchester amounts to 2,000 tons of goods per day, and to this trade the Report was required to refer. The engineers made separate Reports—Mr. Walker's only has been published, but that Mr. of Rastrick agrees with it in every essential particular. The length of the railway between Liverpool and Manchester is thirty-four miles: it has two tracks—one for going, the other for returning—and three inclined planes, each about a mile-and-a-half in length,—one rising one foot in 48 feet, the other two rising one foot in 96 feet; the rest of the road may be considered a dead level. Mr. Walker assumes the most convenient locomotive engine to carry 13 tons of goods at ten miles an hour: the cost of an engine will be £720., and the annual expence, including wear and tear, £367. This locomotive engine would make three trips daily, which, for the present trade, would require 102 engines constantly on the road, with stationary engines at the inclined planes, which would make the whole annual charge £43,000, being exactly one farthing and one-eighth of a farthing per ton per mile, exclusive of rail-road dues. Upon the stationary engine system, the whole line is to be divided into stations of about one-and-a-half miles, with two engines to each, the annual expence of working which would be £33,000 or one-fifth of a penny per ton per mile, being as 7 to 9 in cost in favour of the stationary engines. The consumption of fuel is estimated at two-and-a-half pounds per mile for each ton of goods. The advantage of the locomotive engine over the horse is little or nothing at a low velocity, but very great indeed at a high velocity. Difference of speed causes no difference of expence with the fixed engines, and only a small difference with the locomotive engines. If the expence of a locomotive engine, travelling at three-and-a-half miles an hour be three pence, at eight miles an hour it will only be four pence.

In a Report printed two years ago it is stated that the Company would be able to convey goods from Liverpool to Manchester at 3s. or 4s. per ton; but let us call it 5s. At present the charge

course, cannot be packed like bales of calico, but let us allow them five times the space, and suppose that the charge is in proportion. Now, since twelve passengers, with their luggage, are reckoned equal to a ton in the mails, it follows that a place, in the steam coach from Manchester to Liverpool, should cost the twelfth part of 25s. or 2s. We may arrive at the same result by another process. It may be inferred from one of the experiments, that the Novelty would carry fifty passengers from the one town to the other at the rate of twenty miles an hour, and would of course yield the proprietors the sum of £5 by an hour and a half's work. Six trips a day, performed at this rate, would produce £30—which we conceive would make the conveyance of passengers a very profitable branch of trade. As the rail way company will have a monopoly, they may probably charge more at first, but when the railway carriage is subjected like other branches of business to the law of competition, we imagine the terms will not be higher than we have stated.

The journey from London to York by the mail costs at present about £3, and occupies twenty three hours. By the steam-coach it will be accomplished in ten hours, at an expence of 14s. ! the saving of money and time will be as great in the case of Liverpool and Manchester, which are at nearly the same distance from the metropolis. A Leeds or Manchester manufacturer may take an early breakfast in his own house at seven, dine in London at five, transact business that night or next morning, and reach his home on the following evening, while a two pound note will cover his whole expences!

The journey from Manchester to Liverpool, or from Liverpool to Manchester

varies from 12 to 20s. and may average about 15s. Now, it is estimated that about 2000 tons pass each way daily; and as 10s. will be saved upon each ton, it follows that the saving upon 4,000 tons will amount to £2000 per day, or the enormous sum of £600,000 per annum!—a saving such as no single improvement ever before produced.



(thir y-one miles,) will be performed at an expence of two shillings in one hour and a half, or, as some already anticipate, in one hour. Now, an active pedestrian in the metropolis will spend two hours in going from Grosvenor square to Wapping; or, with the luxury of a hackney coach, he may go in one hour, at an expence of seven shillings. Thus, by the admirable invention of steam carriages, Liverpool and Manchester will be brought nearer to one another in a moral, social, and commercial sense, than the extremities of London now are. If this be not absolutely annihilating time and space, it is abridging both wonderfully.

Suppose that an Edinburgh man has a friend to visit or business to transact in London. His journey up costs him two day's travelling, with a sacrifice of two nights rest, and a sum of £7 and his journey down the same. By the steam-coach and railway he will be able to reach London in twenty hours, without losing one night's sleep, at an expence of 26s. or 36s. including his food; and his journey home will be performed in the same time, and at the same expence. If we compare the two cases, the time will be as  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 1, the expence as 4 to 1, in favour of the steam conveyance. The inducements to travel would be in something like a compound ratio of all these, or, to speak moderately, as 20 to 30 to 1.

An Edinburgh dealer might send off a letter at eight at night on Monday, which would be delivered to the manufacturer in Leeds or Manchester at eight on Tuesday morning. The latter might despatch the goods, ordered in the course of the same day, and they would reach the dealer when his shop opened on Wednesday morning. Thus only one entire day would elapse betwixt writing the order and receiving the articles. The manufacturer's sale-room in Manchester would, in this case, be almost as much at the shopkeeper's command, as his own warehouse in a neighbouring street.

An Edinburgh merchant could leave his house at seven, breakfast in Glasgow

at nine (assuming that the railway is made,) transact business there till two, and be home to his own dinner at four, at an expence of 7s. 6d., namely, 6s. for coach-hire, and 1s. 6d. for breakfast. At present the journey, including subsistence and a night's lodging, would cost him seven times as much.

If the journey from Edinburgh to Manchester could be performed in ten hours, at an expence of 14s. or 15., every merchant knows that the amount of travelling between the two places would increase, not ten, but fifty fold!—Journeys for pleasure would multiply in as great a proportion as those for business; and we are satisfied, that when we enjoy the advantages of railways and locomotive engines on all our great thoroughfares, we shall have, on a moderate estimate twenty or thirty times as much internal intercourse as we have at present.

When the land carriage of goods shall be reduced from 9d. or 10d. a ton to 2d. and when less than one-fourth of the time shall be occupied in the transport of the heaviest goods,—corn, potatoes, and even coals, will bear the expence of land carriage for 100 miles: which must diminish the price of such articles in many large towns, and raise the price of all raw produce in the remote parts of the country.

The engineers who were present at the late experiments, now talk familiarly of 30 miles an hour as a perfectly practicable thing. It is obvious that the effect of such cheap and expeditious travelling, when it becomes general, must be to unite all the towns of the island so closely together, that for all practical purposes, as has been well observed, they will become suburbs of the metropolis; and both commodities and opinions will circulate with a rapidity hitherto unknown and unlooked for in the world we inhabit." RP

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#### JEWES.

It is a difficult matter to arrive at any accurate knowledge of the number of

Jews. The estimates are of the most discordant character.

From an account, published in a Weimar Journal, the number would seem to be one third less than in the time of David and Solomon. The population of the Jewish nation was then four millions. At the present day they are reckoned in that journal to amount to two millions and a half. The *Conversations-Lexicon*, another German work, makes them under two millions, but, at the same time remarks, that the estimate is much too small, as Poland, before the partition, con-

tained one million, Galicia 422,000 and the German Jews were generally estimated at 300,000. A paragraph, again, in a late National Gazette, states their amount at 2,700,000.

The uncertainty of the subject will be best seen, by a comparison of the two statements first referred to; that of the *Conversations-Lexicon*,—Art—*Juden*, said to be founded on estimates made in 1817, with that of the *Ephemerid. Geograph.* of Weimar, founded on others, made within the last few years.

*Ephem. Geograph.*

Bavaria . . . . .	53,402
Saxony . . . . .	1,300
Hanover . . . . .	6,000
Wurtemberg . . . . .	9,068
Baden . . . . .	16,930
Electorate of Hesse . . . . .	5,170
Grand Duchy of Hesse . . . . .	14,982
Rest of the Allied German States . . . . .	18,248
Frankfort on the Maine . . . . .	5,200
Lubeck . . . . .	400
Hamburgh . . . . .	8,000
Austrian States . . . . .	453,545
Prussia . . . . .	134,980
Russia . . . . .	426,908
Poland . . . . .	232,000
Great Britain . . . . .	12,000
Low Countries . . . . .	80,000
France . . . . .	60,000
Sweden . . . . .	450
Denmark . . . . .	6,000
Switzerland . . . . .	1,970
Italy . . . . .	36,900
Ionian Islands . . . . .	7,000
Cracow . . . . .	7,300
Turkey in Europe . . . . .	321,000
Asia . . . . .	138,000
Africa, of which 300,000 are in the empire of Morocco . . . . .	504,000
America . . . . .	5,700
West Indies . . . . .	50
Total . . . . .	2,566,503

*Conversations-Lexicon.*

German States . . . . .	68,500
Austria . . . . .	415,000
Prussia . . . . .	78,000
Russia with Poland . . . . .	402,800
England . . . . .	25,000
Netherlands . . . . .	30,000
France . . . . .	60,000
Denmark . . . . .	5,300
Italy . . . . .	27,000
Ionian Isles . . . . .	4,400
Cracow . . . . .	2,500
Turkey . . . . .	60,000

There are no longer, according to the Weimar periodical, any Jews in Spain and Portugal; there never have been any in Norway: Sweden did not admit them till lately; in the Austrian states they enjoy some rights; in England, al-

though they participate in all the rights of dissenters, they have never prospered; and in Russia they are under strict surveillance. In the states of the German confederacy, in France, in the Netherlands, and in Prussia, they enjoy all the

rights of citizens, without, however, being eligible to places of public trust. In this country, alone, do they possess an equality of rights and privileges with the followers of every other system of religion.

Since writing the above we have seen, in a recent periodical, the number of Jews, scattered throughout the world, in 1825, estimated at about 3,163,800 individuals, exclusive of 15,000 Samaritans, and 500 Ishmaelites. Their dispersion in various countries being thus calculated.

*Europe.* In Russia and Poland—658,809; Austria 453,524; European Turkey 321,000; states of the German confederation, 138,000; Prussia 134,000; Netherlands 80,000; France 60,000; Italy 36,000; Great Britain 12,000; Cracow 7,000; Ionian Isles 7,000; Denmark 6,000; Switzerland 1,970; Sweden 450. Total number in Europe 1,916,053 or a proportion of nearly 1 in 100, reckoning the whole population of Europe at 180,000,000.

*Asia.* Asiatic Turkey 300,000; Arabia 200,000; Hindusthan, 100,000; China 60,000; Turkistan 40,000; Province of Iran 35,000; Russia in Asia 3000. Total, 738,000.

*Africa.* Morocco and Fez 300,000; Tunis 130,000; Algiers 30,000; Habesch 20,000; Tripoli 12,000; Egypt 12,000. Total, 504,000.

*America.* North America 5000; Netherlandish colonies 500; Demerara and Eosequibo 200. Total, 5,700.

*New Holland* 50.

The discrepancies, between this and the other accounts, prove still more strongly our want of correct statistical information on the subject.

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## AMERICANISMS.

(Continued from page 417.)

*Evening.* "After dinner." *Southern States.*

*Federalist.* A new denomination, arising from the political circumstances of the United States.

*Fisk* or *Fisc.* "The treasury." This is an unpleasant word; although it has been recommended on the high authority of M. Duponceau, and exists in the German and French; both of which had the word from the Latin *fiscus*. It sounds so like fist, as at times, to convey a ludicrous idea to the hearer. "To draw money from the public *fisk*." The word is not needed.

\**To fix.* "To arrange, to prepare." As "I'm *fixing* to go." There is, also, a substantive, "*fix*"—as "I'm not in a good *fix*," i.e. I am not prepared. *Southern States.*

\**Flunkt.* "Overcome, outdone." *Kentucky.*

\**Fodder.* in many of the states, means the blades of corn, stacked up for use. In England it is applied to any kind of dry food, stored up for cattle against winter.

*To fort in.* Another case of the substantive being converted into a verb. *Marshall.*

*To fourfold.* "To assess in a fourfold ratio." *Connecticut.* A similar instance.

*To girdle.* "To make a circular incision through the bark of trees and leave them to die." (See *Belling*.)

\**Givy.* "Muggy." The weather is said to be givy, when there is much moisture in the atmosphere. *South.*

\**Good.* "*Well.*" A vulgarism in the southern states. As "I can't *fix* it *good*."

*Gouging.* This word has been borrowed from the carpenters shop. It is taken from the old English word, employed by old Ben. "To *gouge*," i.e. to scoop out as with a gouge or chisel.

— "by *googing* of 'em out  
Just to the size of my bottles, and not slicing."

*Devil is an Ass.*

*Grade.* "Degree, order." This word is now in common use. We see no objection to it. It has honorable ancestry both in the Teutonic and Romanic stocks.

*Happifying.* "Making happy." A barbarous term of hybrid origin—half Latin and half English. It is occasionally heard from the pulpit.

**\*Handsome.** Is more extensively used in this country than in England. There they would rarely or never speak of a "handsome garden;" although the term is now more extensively applied there than formerly.

**\*Heap.** Much—a great quantity or number. *Southern and western States.* As "it is a *heap* colder to day." A *heap* of pains, a *heap* of dollars. It corresponds with the word *lots* as it was commonly used in England, some years ago.

**Help.** "A servant." *New England.* Generally a "female servant."

**Hominy or hommony.** "Food made of Indian corn, broken coarsely and bruised." *General.*

**\*Honeyfuggle.** "To quiz, to cozen." *Kentucky.*

**\*Hoppergrass.** This word is often used in the south for *grasshopper*. *A vulgarity.*

**\*Hornswoggle.** "To embarrass irretrievably." *Kentucky.*

**Illy.** This adverb cannot, perhaps, be said to be of American origin; it has however, been employed by so few of the older English writers; and is now never used in England, that we mention it here. *Ill* is equally an adverb and adjective; and hence, *illy*, to say the least of it, is unnecessary.

**To improve.** "To occupy, make use of, employ"—as to "*improve* as a tavern"—"to *improve* a schoolmaster." "to *improve* their children in labour &c." *New England.*

**Improvement,** of a sermon, the conclusion. *New England.*

**In for Into, and vice versa.** This is said to be common in New York and Pennsylvania. "We get in the stage," and have the rheumatism *into* our knees. *Coleman* "When did you come *in* town." *Pennsylvania.*

**Insularity.** "The situation or state of an island." A convenient word, and one that has been coined from the Latin, in England as well as this country.

**Interval-land or Interval.** "Bottom-land." *New England.*

**Involvement** for "involvedness." Used

by Mr. Marshall in his *Life of Washington*.

**\*Join** the church—"to become a "member of the church." See *church member of the*.

**To keep.** "To stay at the house of any person." "Where do you *keep*?" *New England.*

**Lecture day.** "A holiday"—from the custom of excusing boys from going to school on those *week* days, when there was a public lecture.

**Lay.** "Terms or conditions of a bargain, prices, wages;"—as "I bought the articles at a good *lay*."

**Lengthy.** "Long, lengthened, extended, prolix."

**Lick or salt lick.** "A salt spring; the earth which has been furrowed by the deer and buffalo licking the earth on account of the saline particles with which it is impregnated."

**Like, for "as or like as."** "He carries them *like* I do"—a vulgarism in the *southern and western states*; it is also used, as follows, in the south: "I do not feel *like* eating." *Vulgarity.*

**Likely.** "Sensible, intelligent, of moral worth." *New England.* The word is, also, frequently employed in the sense of "*good looking*;" as "he is a *likely* fellow." Mr. Pickering quotes a sentence from the *Portfolio*, in which it is asserted, that the word, in the latter sense, is used throughout the British dominions. We believe it to be very rarely so employed, in any part of England. It seems to be obsolete. In Scotland it is used.

Off *likely* men that born was in *England*.  
Be suerd and fyr that nycht doit v thousand."

Wallace M.S.

**Laster from List.** One who receives and makes returns of *ratable estate*." *Connecticut.*

**To locate.** "To place, to reside"—"a number of courts properly *located*." "Where do you intend to *locate*?" Or "where are you *located*?" The word is used also in the sense of, "to designate a tract by writing or to fix the boundaries of unsettled land." *Webster.*

**Location.** "The act of designating and bounding land;" also "the tract so designated."

**Lot.** "A field or part of premises." As "keep your cow out of my *lot*."

\***To lot or allot,** (with upon) "to court upon"—as, "*I lot upon* going thither." *New England.*

**Lumberer.** "A seller of timber." *North.*

\***Marooning.** Perhaps from *mare* the sea. It always means a "*party to the sea shore*." *South Carolina.* Also common in the West Indies.

\***Means.** Medicine. *South.*

\***Measurably.** In a measure.

**Merchant.** This word, in England, is applied to a person engaged in traffic with foreign countries. In many parts of the United States, it means a retail dealer, also.

**To missionate.** "To perform the functions of a missionary." It is characterized in Pickering's *Vocabulary* as a low, unauthorized word.

**Moccason or Moggason.** According to Webster, "a shoe of soft *lether*\* without a sole, ornamented round the ankle." *Indian.*

\***Mosey.** "To move off. *Kentucky.*

\***Motivity.** "The quality of being influenced by motives;" also "the power of producing motion." *Dwight.*

\***Mollagausauger.** "A stout fellow." *Kentucky.*

**Mush.** "Food of cornmeal, boiled." *Southern States.*

**Musical.** "Humorous"—as "he is very *musical*." *Local, in New England.*

**Netop.** An Indian word for "a friend or crony." *Massachusetts.*

\***Nitre.** This word is very improperly used, in many parts, for "the *sweet spirit of nitre*," instead of for salt-petre.

**To notify.** "To inform." This is an American signification; and, hence, "to *notify* him of it," is common. The

\*Amongst the many idle innovations introduced by Webster in the established orthography of the language, this is one. Why did he not begin at home and strike out the expletive, *h*, from his own christian name?

real interpretation of the word is "to make known;" and the sentence ought to be "to notify it to him." This error is universal. (See *Museum* p. 12.)

**Notions.** "Small wares." As "Yankee *notions*." *New England, Vulgarism.*

**Offset.** Not uncommonly employed for "*set off*."

**On.** As "*on tomorrow*;" a mere expletive. *Common.*

**Organize.** To "arrange." This word has a restricted sense, being applied to political and other bodies; as, "have you *organized*?" i.e. have you arranged?

**Over for under.** "A writer *over* the signature." This ridiculous and unjustifiable innovation has been already criticized in this Journal. (p. 12.)

**To packet.** "To ply with a packet." This is a local word; originating from the substantive, like many others; as to *cart*, to *wagon* &c.

**Pappoose.** The Indian name for "a child;" applied to Indian children.

**To Parade.** "To assemble, arrange, exhibit, bring forth." "Come, *parade* your jewels."

**Pine-barren.** "A forest of pines." *Carolinas.*

\***Plunder.** "Luggage, effects." A vulgarism in the *Southern States.* As "your *plunder* (effects) has arrived."

**Portage.** "A carrying place, by the banks of rivers, round waterfalls or rapids." *North.*

**Prairie.** "A natural meadow, or a plain naturally destitute of trees." A word introduced from the French.

**Prayerful—prayerfully,** used by some of the clergy—but not English.

**To predicate.** "To found," as "my proposition was *predicated* on that view." Very commonly used.

**Professor of Religion.** See *Member* of the church. We there stated that these words are American. We might have said Scotch likewise.

**To Progress.** "To advance." The verb "to *progress*" is used by Shakspeare."

**Proxies.** "Written votes or ballots."

*Rhode Island and Connecticut.* Also, "the election or election-day." *Prox* is, also, used in Rhode Island for "the ticket or list of candidates at elections."

*Publishment* of the banns—for "publication." *New England. Local.*

\**To quiddle.* "To busy one's self about trifles." The word is also used as a substantive. *New England.*

\**To quit,* "to leave off"—as "quit it, I say!" *Southern States.*

*Rackets.* "Snow shoes." *New England.*

*To raise.* "To bring up, to cultivate"—as "to raise corn." "I was raised in Virginia."

*Redemptioner.* "One who redeems himself by services or whose services are sold to pay certain expences."

\**To refunk.* "To retreat, to back out." *Western States.*

*Renewedly.* "Anew, again."

*Result.* A technical name for "the decision of ecclesiastical councils." *New England.*

*To result.* "To decide or decree as an ecclesiastical council." "The council resulted that the parties &c."

\**Retiracy.* "Solitude." *Western States.*

*Rock* for "stone." He heaved a rock." "He threw a stone"—a refinement.

\**Rowdy.* "A low, dirty fellow—a blackguard." *West.*

\**Rooster.* "A cock"—a refinement. *Local.*

*Rugged.* "Robust"—as "a rugged child." *New England.*

*Run.* "A small stream." *Common.*

#### BIOGRAPHIES OF DAVY, WOOLLASTON, AND YOUNG.

Dr Paris, the author of several respectable chemical and pharmaceutical works, is engaged in writing the life of Sir Humphry Davy. He is likewise collecting materials for Biographies of Drs. Woollaston and Thomas Young. The Memoir on the former, it is expected, will appear in 1830.

#### CONVENTION.

(Continued from page 443.)

Mr. Joynes, of Accomac, said that while he felt it his duty to watch over the interests of his constituents, he considered himself, in some degree, the representative of the whole people of Virginia; and had come prepared to reconcile all conflicting interests by a spirit of compromise: and more especially on the present subject of debate. He denied that the subject had any necessary connection with the right of suffrage, which he was in favor of extending to all who pay taxes.

He regarded it as one of the greatest errors in government, to lay down fundamental principles, without regard to circumstances, the same species of government not being suited to every people. He thought personal rights better entitled to protection than property, but that there was no incompatibility. "Property, said he, asks not for a sword to enable it to do injury to others; it only asks for a shield to protect itself." He denied that the sole object of the amendment was to protect slave property, and that he should be in favor of it, if there was not a slave in Virginia. It regarded *taxation*, generally. If the question were whether, in appointing representatives according to *numbers alone*, slaves, should be included, he admitted he should be against including them.

He denied Mr. Cook's position that with the addition of certain counties in the valley, the slave holding interest would always have the preponderance, even on the white basis; because they had not the proportion of slaves which could give them the same interest as the eastern counties, on question of taxes between land and slaves. He said the slaves in the trans-Alleghany district were but eight and two thirds per cent. of the of the white population; in the valley, they are seventeen per cent; and in the eastern district, they exceed the whites. He then showed that the fourteen valley counties had a direct interest in preferring a tax on slaves to one on land by more than two to one.

Referring to the auditor's estimate of the present population, he showed that on the white basis, the west would be entitled, in a house of one hundred and twenty members, to eleven 2-3 members. That the two middle districts, (the valley and tide water) would be entitled to but fifty-nine members; but on the combined basis, the same two districts, which had been called "the heart of the state," would be entitled to sixty-two members. In answer to the remark of Mr. Mercer that there would not be a majority of white population west of the Blue Ridge before

See p. 429.

R.D. ~~was~~

1850, he said that according to the auditor's estimate, if the comparative rate of increase continued, there would, in 1835, be a majority there of more than 3000.

He referred to the constitutions of several of the states to show that not fifteen states as had been stated, but only six had adopted the "white basis," *without modification*, neither of which states are of the original thirteen. The constitutions of seventeen other states contained some provisions inconsistent with mere numbers. The example of the last ought, he said, to have more weight, not only on account of their greater number, but of the longer experience of most of them. As soon as this state should be able, like some others, to do without taxes, he was willing to adopt the white basis.

Mr. Joynes here exhibited a minute detail of the average tax paid by each white person in each of the four great districts of the state; particularizing the taxes on land, slaves, horses and carriages, and licenses, in each of which the east paid considerably more than the west, per head, and on taking the whole together, the east pays eighty-one cents and two mills per head, when the west pays but twenty-eight cents and four mills. He then proceeded to compare particular counties in different districts to show the gross inequality between the east and the west in taxation, connected with representation, and he mentioned two senatorial districts, (containing a twenty-fourth part of the white population,) which paid nearly as much tax as the whole trans-Alleghany country. He divided the public expenditures, *not of a general character*, between the two great divisions of the state for the purpose of proving that the west drew more money from the treasury than it paid into it.

With this state of facts, Mr. J. asked "if it could be expected that eastern Virginia, if there was not a slave in the state, would consent to give their fellow citizen's of the west, the absolute and *irresponsible* control of their property? though he had the highest confidence in their integrity, he said they were *men*; and that "he would not, trust Aristides himself" to tax him without responsibility. He said that that hall was the last place in which the doctrine of *political faith* ought to be maintained—referred to the violations of the constitution which had been there imputed to the federal government, and insisted that it would be unreasonable to trust more to a sense of honor to ensure forbearance, when constitutional restraints had been insufficient. To internal improvements, he said, he was *friendly*, but he wanted "those who are to pay

the expense, to have the power of deciding, *when, for what purpose, and to what extent* they will contribute."

In answer to Mr. Doddridge's remark that the slave holders of the east wished to ensure perpetual dominion over the west, he said that, on the combined basis, the west, at its present rate of increase, will have an equal representation in 1756, with a population even then, far less dense than the eastern country now is. He concluded by saying that although he preferred the combined basis, he would be willing to abandon it in favor of a graduated plan of representation by counties, if such a one can be devised to guard against oppressive taxation—as the most convenient, and most acceptable to the people.

Nov. 6. Mr. Fitzhugh, of Fairfax, declared himself in favor of the resolution of the committee (the white basis) because it would so organize the government, as "that its future laws shall emanate from a majority of its recognized voters." "In preferring" this principle, "he disclaimed all authority derived from the laws of nature, but he viewed it as one of those plain and practical principles, which the common sense and experience of mankind have almost constituted into a political axiom." He admitted that political power was "the creature of Convention," that by the natural equality of man, was meant that no one could claim a natural superiority to another and the wisdom of Solon's declaration concerning the laws he had made for the Athenians—and he asked in turn the admission that the *republican* form of government is best, that the supreme authority should generally be vested in the majority rather than in the minority, and that all departures from this rule should go no farther than the necessity of the case.

He said that a line drawn from the Chappawamsic to the south west corner of Patrick, would divide the state into two equal parts, each embracing an equal number of the present representatives to Congress, and entitled to nearly the same representation, whether it be based on "federal numbers," or taxation and white population combined. But on comparing these two portions the western division contained 349,720 white inhabitants, and the eastern but 253,361; and that the western gave 23,606 votes on the Convention question, and the eastern but 15,437. It would follow then, that according to the proposed amendment twenty three votes in one division were to weigh no more than fifteen in the other, by reason of the superior wealth of the latter. He asked if this was reasonable or just, or consistent with republican principles—and

insisted that such inequality was more objectionable when merely "sectional," than if it applied to individuals. Besides, if sixteen voters are to be made superior to twenty three, he asked, where are you to stop, at this concentration of power into a few hands? He admitted the necessity of giving security to property, but this he thought, ought to be done by wise legislation, and not by conferring on it political power. He would also guard it by restricting the right of suffrage, which he considered to be the best security for property. If it was inconsistent with a free government, as some had contended, that the many may levy unequal tax on the few, than the two middle districts (on each side of the Ridge) had lived under "the roughest despotism," as they had paid more than half the taxes, by \$30,000, & yet had forty two less representatives than the other two districts. But if said he, it is tyrannical to vest the power of unequal taxation in the majority, what must it be to vest it in a minority?"

He said he was willing to afford to slave property protection against danger, present or prospective. The danger, he considered to be only from excessive taxation, and this was to be guarded against by a constitutional provision, which is "a paper guarantee" it is true, but so are all the limitations on the powers of government, and the constitution itself. He thought it would be equally so to guard against an unequal distribution of the revenue for internal improvement.

He insisted that the notion of giving the legislative power to a majority of *interests*, rather than of persons was impracticable, & stated, by way of illustration that, from his own county, nearly one half of the "male tithables" paid but a hundredth part of the taxes. He thought it probable that three fourths of the taxes were paid by less than 100 citizens; and he asked whether it would be consistent with republican principles to give these hundred persons the control of the county." He could not, then, under any circumstances consent to give to a minority the control of *both* branches of the legislature, and to give it to the most popular branch was hardly less objectionable. He denied that in any state there was such an organization of both houses. He said that Mr. Joynes' statistical statements would be materially affected by leaving out Richmond and Norfolk. He concluded by saying that he was ready to "make every reasonable concession to insure" harmony and tranquillity.

Mr. Moore of Rockingham, said that he and his constituents claimed to be actuated by higher motives than of "mere sordid interest," and said

that the senatorial district from which he came, would not be gainers by the basis they desired. In answer to Mr. Joynes, he said, that in the slave holding counties in the valley, the proportion of voters who were slave holders, to those who were not, were as two to one, so that the jority in those counties had a common interest with the east. He objected to invidious comparisons between different parts of the state, and said that Mr. Joynes' constituents may, in this way, by joining the west be proved paupers; and that by any division of the state into two parts, it must almost of necessity happen that one half paid less into the treasury than they drew from it. But the true rule of equality he said, was, that all should pay according to their ability.

He referred to the Bill of Rights as containing the true principles of republican government, and expressed his surprise and regret that their authority should be denied. He maintained that the natural equality of men was not inconsistent with the exclusion of slaves from the social compact, no more than the exclusion of foreigners. The reason in both cases is that "we do not *choose* to enter into the compact with them." He considered slaves as by nature free, but this was a question between them and us exclusively and that no other people or power could interfere in it.

He said that women were excluded from a share in the government because they have never claimed the right, and they do not make the claim from their confidence in our sex, and the complete identity of interests. In like manner, he said, it would be time enough to assign the reason for excluding infants when they claimed the right. As to the right to exclude non-free holders, that he denied so far as respects the formation or amendment of the constitution. In considering the right of a majority to govern, he said it was immaterial whether it was a natural or "conventional" right, as its influence must be recognized before the social compact can be formed; which position he illustrated by the proceedings of the convention itself in choosing its officers. Nor are the rights of the majority incompatible with those of the minority, but it being impossible that there can be "two independent communities in the same country at the same time," the weaker must submit, or leave the country. He said that the right of a majority to govern had no application to "conventional regulations, but only to the formation of the government, and if they so will it, mere majorities may, in particular cases, be disregarded, or controlled, as in elections, juries &c.

He insisted that there are fundamental princi-



ples of government, which must prevail, at all times, in all countries; and that the right of the majority does prevail even in Turkey; every change in government is effected by the will of the majority, without which it could not be effected. He said that the term "majority" applied only to numbers, and that "a majority of interests" was unintelligible, like a majority of air, religion &c. He considered the title to property to be derived; altogether the creature of the social compact, and that it was not one of the elements of society, but only a strong *inducement* to enter into it.

In answer to Judge Upshur, who had said that if the majority of numbers was alone to be regarded, the slaves ought to be counted, but he said if they are to be counted, which God forbid! what right has he to count them on his side? "Certainly not from identity of interests, for every interest they have on earth is adverse to his?" He then adverted to the non-freeholders, and asked what interest they had in common with the slave holders. Unless they were "both blind and deaf," they must see that their claims have been resisted by the advocates of the mixed basis. If then this class be added to the population of the west, there would no longer be a majority in the east.

In considering Judge Green's amendment for the combined basis of taxes and numbers, he spoke of the practical difficulty of the rule from the fluctuations of property, and consequently of taxes &c. But supposing it practicable, he said the principle was odious, and such as the people would not submit to, if applied to individuals, and he remonstrated against attempting to impose on the western people, what they dare not propose to establish among themselves.

He concurred with the other side that there could be no guarantee, he could neither offer nor accept any in relation to the taxes. There should be no other than mutual confidence, without which, the social compact never should have been formed. If however the interests of the east and west are so distinct as has been represented, it furnished an argument in favor of a division of the state. But he did not believe there was such a diversity of interests.

He then showed that the people of his district had more interest in common with the James River country, than either Culpeper or Accomac had, as the trade of the former was principally to towns out of the state. He repelled the arguments drawn from the James River canal, which he insisted was undertaken principally for the benefit of the east. As to the inequality of taxes paid by the east and the west, he said, if the east

paid more for the support of government, they derived more benefit from the government. That all the expensive undertakings of the state were in the east. He said that the plan of making those who lay the taxes responsible to those who pay them, is utterly impracticable, as in a country having a thousand voters, the chief part of the taxes are paid by about two-hundred, and the representative will always be disposed to consult the wishes of the majority. He declared himself opposed to the compromise recommended by Mr. Monroe as subversive of the great republican principle that a majority shall govern.

On Saturday Nov. 7. This debate was suspended—some explanations having taken place, during the short time the committee sat.

Monday, Nov. 9. Mr. Powell in the chair.

Mr. Giles began by insisting on the advantages of unanimity, such as had taken place in the formation of the present constitution, and which he denied to have been the work of haste or alarm. He spoke of the influence of local interests, but it was the duty of all to meet and subdue the difficulty, or to apply some satisfactory remedy. He deprecated the aid of the general government for emancipation, roads and canals &c., the effect of which would be to annihilate state rights. He said the science of politics had not experienced the same advancement as other branches of knowledge." The only effort at improvement, he said, was the one adopted by the framers of our constitution fifty-four years ago. We have since "rather retrograded to those principles that our forefathers had abandoned." Which he ascribed to our imitation of the British system. And to the interest which governments have in preventing the progress of knowledge, and "improvements in the science of politics."

He next adverted to the social compact—said in its *origin and progress*, every member is a party to it, but at its *completion*, the parties become changed by the consent of all its members; and there are then only two parties the governors and the governed, and the majority shall exercise the powers of government or not, depends on the original compact. He said a *minority* could not rightfully govern, but they may rightfully prevent the majority from doing wrong—as where there is a particular local interest, they may have the power of protecting it.

He gave an example of the mischievous spirit of imitation in the organization of the federal executive; which he said had more "monarchical than republican tendencies." He then contrasted with it, the executive power in Virginia, which he defended from the charge of wanting respon-

sibility. He considered this as "the wisest effort of the genius" which favored our constitution and eulogized it at some length, as well as the constitution generally. He here quoted a passage from a letter of Mr. Jefferson's to show that it was not the work of haste.

He then proceeded to defend the existing constitution against other imputations. He extolled the wisdom of its framers in fixing the basis on *land*, from which every good thing is derived. He also spoke in favor of "intermediate elections," and the separation of departments. Said that "unlimited will, wherever it may exist, is despotism. He said the merits of the constitution were to be seen in its beneficial results—in the moral condition of our society—in the peculiar protection it affords to non-freeholders and to the poor against the rich more than any other in the United States, as justice is administered to him here free of expence. He contrasted too the order and decorum of our elections, with the disorders, and immorality which attended universal suffrage. He spoke of the recent election in New York, and the ticket called Miss Fanny Wright's—and of the escape that state had from an Agrarian law: but he did not know for how long. He said that although our population was more homogeneous we would be exposed to similar dangers.

He spoke in favor of the county courts, which by the union of their moral and official influence, made the strongest executive in the world. Hence arose, he said, "celebrity of Virginia for obedience to the law. Another peculiarity is, that the magistrates have no reward.

In inquiring into the condition of man, previous to society, he agreed with some in their premises, but differed from them in their conclusions, and *vice versa* as to others. He admitted there had been a state of nature, but denied that therefore a majority ought to govern. He referred to the family of Adam and Eve to prove a state of nature, and that property may exist in that state. He said men were driven from that state by their *wants*. That there was a mutual dependence not only among individuals, but among nations, which is the foundation of commerce. He said the contrary doctrine, as supported by the general government, had cost Virginia, since 1816, upwards of a million of dollars.

He stated the objects of the social compact to be to protect persons and property, and a question arises, how much power should be given for that purpose. This should be as little as would answer the purpose. There were but two descriptions of right which government could manage better than individuals. One was the

right of every one to do himself justice, the "smallest portion of property that will suffice for governmental purposes." These would determine the power that government ought to have. He insisted that the charge of seeking what was new, applied to the advocates of the white basis.

He compared the Bill of Rights in Virginia and Massachusetts, which had been highly commended and he preferred the latter. He said that the object of the recommendation to a frequent recurrence to fundamental rights, was for the purpose of watching the practice of the government; and it was very desirable that the general government should recur fundamental principles.

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#### JEFFERSON'S MEMOIR, &c.

A recent London paper has the following encomium on Jefferson's Memoirs &c.

"We have received the highest gratification from a work, which has just issued from the press—the Memoirs and Correspondence of that great and good man, Thomas Jefferson, the celebrated President of the United States. The spectacle of a man of strong powers, devoting himself during the whole of a long life to the good of his fellow creatures, is like the sight of an oasis in the African desert to the spectator of the dirty jobbing and selfish aims of those, who call themselves the great in this country."

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#### OBITUARY.

##### M. VAUQUELIN.

This celebrated individual, known over the world for the important advancement, which he has made in Analytical Chemistry especially, adds one more to the number of distinguished *Savans*, who have died within the last twelve months. In that short period Chemistry has especially suffered: in Wollaston, Davy, Proust and Vauquelin. M. Vauquelin died recently at the age of 67. He was a member of the Institute, Professor at the *Jardin des Plantes* and Deputy for the Department of Calvados.

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##### BARON LARREY.

This veteran in Military Surgery—concerning whom Napoleon made the flattering observation, that he was the most virtuous man he had ever known—has recently been elected a member of the French Academy of Sciences.

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## EARLY GERMAN POETRY. No. 1.

The rage for an acquaintance with the previously concealed treasures of German literature has been abundantly satisfied by the multiplied dissertations, which have, from time to time, appeared on the works of writers since the Reformation. Prior to this period, however, some beautiful productions were occasionally published, especially from the Minnesingers or German Troubadours of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

In taking these collectively a considerable degree of monotony will be perceptible, but individual sonnets exhibit as much poetic feeling, as much grace and tenderness, as are to be met with in the amatory lays of the present day. In this article it will be our object to exhibit a short account of those earlier poems of the Germans, with a few faithful translations, chiefly from specimens in the valuable work of M. Heinsius.\*

Of some of the lays of the Minnesingers a translation has already been published, within the last few years; and, according to Mr. Roscoe, M. Sismondi has announced his intention of devoting himself to the production of a work on the literature of the north, similar to that which he has given to the world on that of the south, of Europe, and if he should succeed as well with his description of the Teutonic as he has in that of the Romanic poets and be fortunate enough to meet with as good a translator as Mr. Roscoe, we may anticipate a fund of amusement and instruction.

The consideration of these earlier pro-

ductions of the Germans may admit of three great divisions—according to the period at which they were written.—1. German poetry prior to the period of the Minnesingers.—2. Period of the Minnesingers and 3. Period of the Mastersingers.

### I. GERMAN POETRY PRIOR TO THE MINNESINGERS.

In the time of Tacitus, the Germani had their minstrels or bards, who sang in honor of their god Tuisco, as well as for the purpose of infusing a martial spirit into the minds of their warriors; and these songs, being transmitted from father to son, recorded the history and manners of their ancestors. Charlemagne is said to have prepared a collection of them, but there are no traces of it extant. They cannot have been distinguished for harmony, as Julian compares them to the screeching of wild fowl. One of the earliest native poets, whose productions have reached us, was Ottfried, a pupil of Rhabanus Maurus—himself a pupil of Alcuin, the learned English monk, who, in the year 804, was employed by Charlemagne as preceptor to his son. Ottfried, who was a monk of the Cloister of Weissenburg in Elsass, rendered the evangelists into German rhyme about the year 870. Prefixed to this translation are three dedications—one to Ludwig, King of the East Franks, another to Luitpert, archbishop of Mentz and the third to Salomo, bishop of Kostnitz. Of manuscripts, yet remaining, those at Vienna, and in the Heidelberg library are best known. The oldest and most rare of the printed copies is that of Flacius, published at Basel in 1571, in 8 vo. with a glossary by Gassar an Augsburg physician. An edition of it also occupies a space of 400

\* *Geschichte der Sprach-Dicht- und Redekunst der Deutschen*, &c.

folio pages in the 1 vol. of the *Thesaurus Antiquitatum Teutonicarum* of Schilter. Although valuable to the philologist, the work of Ottfred is intrinsically poor, compared with the much earlier productions of the poets of antiquity.

Again, amongst the original poetical productions is a hymn, occasioned by the victory, obtained on the Scheldt by Ludwig III. in the year 881, over the Normans—the author of which is not known.

After a description of the injuries, which the Franks had sustained from the Normans, Ludwig is commanded by God to avenge them: the king accepts the command.

“*Tho nam her skild indi sper  
“Ellianliche reit her”—*

Then took he spear and shield  
And quickly sought the field,  
To venge him as he wish'd,  
On his antagonist:  
Nor was it long before  
He met the Norman power:  
Now prais'd be God! says he,  
‘T is what I long’d to see:  
Then boldly rode the king  
Whilst chaunting forth a hymn;  
And altogether sang  
Kyrieleison:  
Now when the song was sung  
The battle was begun;  
The blood rush’d to the face  
Of the valiant Frankish race:  
But none so like a knight,  
As Ludwig veng’d in fight;  
The nimble and the great  
Both traits in him innate.

After this, the poet sings the praises of Ludwig with wishes for his long and prosperous reign. This song is likewise contained in the second book of the *Thesaurus* of Schilter.

We ought not, perhaps, to overlook, entirely, the works of a German poetess, Hroswitha, a nun of Gandersheim, who flourished about the year 980. Besides a life of Otto I. in Latin verse, and several Legends in Hexameters and Pentameters, she wrote, in the same language, some religious Dramas, in which she attempted an imitation of Terence.

An edition of her works, which were not distinguished for much poetical spirit, was first published by Conrad Celtes, at Nürn-

berg 1501, in folio, and another, the latest, by Heinr. Leonh. Schurzfleisch, Wittenberg, 1707. 4to.

Of a much more elevated character must be considered the author of a poem in praise of Hanno, Archbishop of Kölln who died in 1075. We are not acquainted with the writer, but he probably lived at the conclusion of the eleventh century, and seems to have been some monk of considerable poetic spirit and distinguished learning. Martin Opitz found the manuscript in the *Rhediger* library at Breslau and gave an edition of it to the world in 1639, accompanied with valuable notes: it was also published by Schilter in his *Thesaurus*, and since that time various impressions of it have appeared.

Of all the early poems of the Germans the most distinguished, perhaps, is the original epic of the *Nibelungen*: so popular indeed is it, that a writer in the *Conversations Lexicon*, now before us, considers it worthy to stand alongside the Homeric Epic. It is more than 600 years old, and in connexion with two others,—*Chrimhildens Rache* (Chriemhild’s Revenge), and the *Lamentation*—was formerly ascribed to Conrad of Würzburg: but from recent investigations by Aug. Wilh. Schlegel, the topographical descriptions in the poem, as well as other internal evidences, would seem to indicate Klingsohr of Hungary, or, still more probably, Heinrich of Ofterdingen, as the author: still Conrad of Würzburg is estimated to have been the editor. The plot of the poem is the unhappy fate of the Nibelungen or Niflungen—a powerful race of heroes of antient Burgundy—the loves of two individuals of this race involving the destruction of the whole. The chief hero’s name is Siegfried, king of Holland and Nibelungen (Norway—from *Nebellande*—misty land) who received from Gunther, king of Burgundy, for great services rendered to him, Chriemhilde, his beautiful sister. But Gunther’s wife, Brunhilde, so contrives that Siegfried is murdered. From this time Chriemhilde seeks to revenge the death of her husband, and finally succeeds in cutting off the head of Hagene, the murderer, with the very sword which he had taken from Siegfried at the time of the murder.

The period, at which the events of this poem fall, is that of Ezelin or Attila, king of the Huns, about AD. 430 or 440: the

scene is on the Rhine, and on the frontiers of Austria and Hungary. "The editor of this Epic" says M. Heinsius "and with him every connoisseur and Amateur of the antient literature of Germany, maintains the preeminent merit of this poem. It is a happy, select, patriotic performance, indicating not only the manner, but the romantic imagination of the poet: it is rich in admirably depicted characters, and in faithful delineations, so that this poem must be esteemed the most valuable monument of German antiquity." "Too high a valuation of it however," he properly adds, "as has been the case in modern times, cannot but injure the good cause."

In order that our readers may judge of the form and substance of this national poem, we shall give a metrical version from the "*first adventure*" of the edition of Hagen, in which we have preferred, as in all the other examples, fidelity to elegance.

## ERSTE ABENTEURE.

*Uns ist in alten mæhren wunders viel gesait.  
Von helden lobebæren, von grosser Arbeit—*

To us, the wond'rous feats of old, it often falls to hear,

Of commendable heroes bold; of many a fight severe;

Of joys and of festivities; of weeping and lament:—

Of combats of brave chivaliers, you now shall hear anent.

In Burgundy there flourished a highly noble maid,

No country could exhibit a more beautiful 'tis said:

Chriemhilde was her chosen name: she was a beauteous wife.

For her was many a val'rous knight fore-doom'd to loss of life.

This maid was form'd for tenderness, and many a hero bold,

Her favor anxiously desired; for no one could be cold

To her surpassing loveliness, supported by the aid.

Of ev'ry youthful requisite, that could adorn the maid.

Three chieftains, rich and noble, of Chriemhild had the care.

First Gunther and Gernot, the brave, two knights without compare;

With Giselher, the youngest one, of chivalry select,

Chriemhild, as a sister dear, united to protect.

These chieftains were magnanimous, of families high bred;

In courage without measure great, and highly talented:

Burgundia was their country call'd: they after did command,

Great praises for their wond'rous feats, performed in Etzel's land.

At Worms, along the Rhine, they dwelt, in midst of all their might;

For them serv'd much proud chivalry, full many a native knight,

With commendable honor for the period of their lives,

Till they perish'd from a jealousy 'twixt two illustrious wives.

A Queen of passing beauty, lady Ute was their dame,

And Dankrat was their loving sire—a prince of mighty fame,

From whom they had their heritage—of prowess great: and one,

Who in his yet more youthful days important feats had done.

After describing some of the knights, who served under these chieftains, the adventure goes on—

It happened once upon a time that Chriemhild, virgin mild,

Dreamt she was rearing up with care a beauteous falcon, wild,

Which two huge eagles pounc'd upon, and kill'd before her eyes;

No greater sorrow to her heart than this one could devise.

She quickly sought her mother dear, Dame Ute, whom she found,

Who, after having heard the dream, thus tried it to expound.

The falcon thou wert rearing up designs a noble spouse,

"And whom, if God protect him not, thou wilt be sure to lose."

"Why talk to me of man and love? my mother ever dear!

"Without the love of any knight, shall I persist for e'er.

"Until my day of death shall come I, single, shall remain,

"In order that from mortal man I ne'er may suffer pain."

"Nay vow not thus so rashly, love!" her mother mildly spoke,

"Wouldst thou enjoy felicity thy words thou must revoke;

'By love this may encompass'd be: thou'lt make a beauteous wife,

"And God will send a proper knight—the solace of thy life.

"The vow, it must continue on, my tender mother—love!

"Full many a married female, ay! too many we can prove,

"Has found that love with sorrow great may recompensed be;

"Whilst, by avoiding both of these, they ne'er can fall to me.

Chriemhilde, now, with care abstain'd from ev'ry lover's way,

And as a maid continued for many a livelong day;

Thus, for a time, she met with none in whom she took delight,

Though afterwards, with honor clear, the consort of a knight.

This knight he was the Falcon bird, which in her dream she spied;

How much she did revenge herself on those by blood allied,

Who after that did murder him, you shall be told anon,

From this one val'rous knight's decease, died many a mother's son.

Not less distinguished is the collection of antient, heroic, songs—the *Heldenbuch* or book of heroes—all the chivalric narratives being probably founded on national traditions. The chief hero of the book is Dietrich of Berne. Like the *Nibelungenlied* it is valuable as a history of the manners of the nation during the middle ages; and, like it contains, as a natural consequence, much national, German, poetry. The collection is supposed to be the united work of Heinrich of Osterdingen and Eschilbach. Manuscripts of it are to be found at Strassburg and Dresden.

The first edition appeared in 1509 at Strassburg in Folio; and others, subsequently, at Frankfort on the Maine.

To the purely foreign fictions of this

period, produced in Germany, belong those formed from antient and mere modern mythology and history, not always from the originals themselves, but through French translations. For example, the *Trojan War* was a fertile topic to many poets. Wolfram of Eschenbach wrote an Epic under this title, which still exists, in manuscript, at St. Gallen, Strassburg, Berlin, and Vienna. Oberlin has described this poem, at much length, in his *Diatribes de Conrado Herbolita*, and adduced several specimens. We have likewise a free imitation of the *Æneid*, by Heinrich of Veldeck, from the French of Chretien of Troyes—who lived in the middle of the twelfth century—with some interpolations. MSS. of this are still extant at Gotha, Vienna and Eybach near Geisslingen in Swabia.

Lastly, Ovid's metamorphoses were translated by Albrecht of Halberstadt.

Charlemagne and his paladine, and Arthur and his round table, the romance of which is known to almost every one, were also fertile sources for the poets of this period. A collection of poems, regarding the round table, was published at Vienna in 1811.

Of these poems—of indigenous or foreign origin—the former, it would seem, were distributed generally amongst the people, whilst the latter were encouraged only at the courts, where, even at this time, a preference for foreign productions was perceptible.

## II. PERIOD OF THE MINNESINGERS.

The Germans seem to have received their taste for Romantic poetry from the Provençal poets—the *Troubadours*: this taste was strongly encouraged by the Swabian emperors, the first of whom ascended the imperial throne of Germany in the year 1138, and it became highly improved and cultivated by the *Swabian poets*, German *Troubadours* or *Minnesingers*, as they were termed, from the old German words *Minna* and *Minnen*, which signified love and friendship—the common subjects of their songs.

All things concurred, at this period, to raise poetry to a higher state of excellence. Germany had considerably increased in power, population and commerce: the princes and nobles were more powerful and the pomp of the courts consequently greater; the imperial towns had become

opulent. Trade had induced luxury ;—and time, another and a better spirit. The romantic extravagancies of the Provençals found a ready reception in the minds of the Germans, from their previous chivalric excitement by the crusades, which had commenced in the year 1096. The poetry to which that spirit gave occasion, being encouraged by the Swabian emperors, became a favorite study of the higher classes. The Minnesingers distributed themselves over Germany and composed not only those poems of which we have already spoken, but also numerous Lyric songs, distinguished for their grace and tenderness, and for which they have been more celebrated than for any other of their productions. They also produced several romantic poems which, however, were chiefly imitations or translations of the Provençal poetry of the Troubadours. The best extant, collection of these small poems of the middle ages, and which contains between 1400 and 1500 songs, by 136 poets, is that by Rudger Manesse of Zurich, made in the beginning of the fourteenth century, and, consequently, at the end of the flourishing period of the Minnesingers: several of these have been modernized and published by Tieck, Græter, Weckherlin, Hagen, Busching, Hofstæter and others.

The oldest of those Swabian poets or Minnesingers, whose works and names have reached us, is Heinrich of Veldeck or Veldig. He was a native of the north of Germany; lived at the end of the twelfth and commencement of the thirteenth century, and was the author of *Schæbischen Eneidt*—the translation of the *Æneid* to which we have referred—and several other poems, printed in the collection of Manesse. His sentiments are much more beautiful than the form in which he has chosen to convey them in the original, if we judge from the specimen given by Bouterwek (Band. ix. p. 105.)

*Min sendes denken.*

My ardent thoughts, nay! all my mind,  
Entirely without change,  
Are but to witness to my fair,  
The way my passions range;  
And how, with constant heart, so long,  
Accustom'd I have been,  
To paint in many a tender song,  
Her purity and sheen.

Walther von der Vogelweide was a favorite Minnesinger, who lived in the first half of the thirteenth century and was a wandering singer from one court to another. His chief patron was Leopold of Austria, from whom he received very valuable presents. His songs prove him to have been a man of the world, and breathe highly patriotic sentiments, as evinced by the following examples.

*Durch suetz und gebluemet sint die reinen frowen;*

*Es wart nie niht so wunnekliches anzeschouen*

How sweet, like flowers, are ladies fair;  
There's nought so beautifully divine,  
In air, on earth, in meadows green,  
Where lilies and where roses shine;  
The dewy grass in month of May,  
The songsters warbling in the trees;  
All, all, combin'd, to me are null,  
Compar'd with such delights as these.  
The aspect of a lady fair,  
Can every gloomy thought disperse,  
And, quick as lightning, from the mind,  
All grief and dreariness everse:  
So lovely pout her rosy lips,  
In love such gracious smiles impart,  
Whilst rays, direct from sparkling eyes,  
Pierce deep into the inmost heart.

And again:—

*Tuetsche man sint wolgezogen;*

*Als engel sint die wib getan.*

Well bred are the German men;

Their wives for angels taken;

Whoso'er abuses them

Must surely be mistaken,

Virtue and the purest love,

If any wish to find 'em,

Let them come to German land,

They need not look behind 'em.

Oh! my native land for me;

May I long live to view it,

Many countries have I seen

But never can eschew it;

For though to look out for the best,

Has been my fond devotion,

May woe betide me if I have,

For foreign modes a notion.

Walther of Metz, Hartmann of Aue, Albrecht of Halberstadt, Wolfram of Eschensbach, Heinrich of Osterdingen, Nicolau-Klingsohr, Gottfried of Strassburg, Ottocar of Horneck, Reinbot of Doren, Reinmar the elder, Conrad of Wuerzburg, Ulrich of Lichtenstein, Jacob von der Warte—all of

whom lived at the end of the twelfth or commencement of the thirteenth century—were no less celebrated as love poets.

The sonnets of the first of these are extremely beautiful.

*Was hilfet mich, das ich ze fremdem froiden  
rar?*

*Solde ich den gesten froide machen :—*

Ah where would be the use for me

To visit with the glad?

Can I give pleasure to the guests

Whilst I myself am sad?

First must my lady send me joy,

Or I shall strive in vain,

But let her only smile on me,

I smile on them again.

For all my hordes of mirth and joy

Repose within her care,

And love my heart in terror sways,

For her my virtuous fair.

With mind absorb'd and silent mood

Her love I still implore,

My wooing would resemble fools'

Did I exhibit more.

M. Heinsius has adduced a specimen of the Lyrical poetry of Jacob von der Warte, which also exhibits much tenderness and poetic feeling.

#### DIE FRUEHLINGS KLAGE.

*Man soll hoeren suesses singen  
In dien ouwen ueberdtl*

#### A SPRING LAMENTATION.

Hear ye not the carols sweet  
In the meadows—through the vale,  
Not the wondrous strains resound  
Nor the song of nightingale?  
Look at yon extensive lawn,  
And the heath so green and gay,  
In what beauteous garments clad  
They salute th' approach of May.

How the little flowers rejoice  
In the May dew to recline:  
All will now become reviv'd  
In the golden, solar, shine;  
I, alone, must joyless be,  
Only I no pleasure feel,  
For no favor can I find  
In my lady's heart of steel.

Oh! thou amiable love!  
From my heart the pang decoy,  
Comfort my forsaken sense  
Comfort, or I'm dead to joy;

Aid from thee alone avails;  
Should I separate from her,  
Nought on earth can solace bring;  
Hence, on me, thy aid confer.

Power great, the wise men say,  
Can the strongest overcome;  
Yet must I for grace lament,  
And on woman, fix my doom.  
Heavens! I'm in high despair,  
Sick of torments such as those;  
Whilst she leaves me thus unmov'd,  
Lile with me is near a close.

Love! be common to us both,  
Or to ev'ry joy I'm dead;  
Cause that I carress'd may be  
By her lips of ruby red;  
As thou holdest sway o'er me  
And my heart dost all subject,  
Gracious love! to her attend  
And her heart to mine direct.

There is considerable melody and feeling in the original of the following version from the *virtuous writer* (*Der tugendhafte Schreiber*)—as he is called in the old collections—probably Heinrich of Rispach.

To the woods I make my moaning  
For the treatment of my fair;  
She, who has my heart encompass'd,  
And in bondage keeps it there.  
I am like the nightingale,  
Warbling on so long in vain,  
And in spite of all its warbling  
Still foredoom'd to suffer pain.\*

Amongst the emperors, kings and princes, of this period, several were not only friends and patrons of the muses, but minnesingers themselves. The chief of these were the emperor Henry VI (A.D. 1190 to 1197) and Conrad IV. (A.D. 1250 to 1254.) King Wenzel of Bohemia (A.D. 1278.) The Margrave Otto of Brandenburg with the arrow (A.D. 1298)—the Margrave Heinrich of Misnia, Duke Heinrich of Pressala and several counts and barons.

The two following are the productions of Otto IV of Brandenburg.

*\* Es ist in den walt gesungen,  
Das ich ir genaden clage,  
Duc min herze hat betruengen  
Und noch twinget alle tage.*



## IM FRUEHLING.

*Uns kumt aber ein lichter meie,  
Der machet manig herze fruoet.*

## SPRING.

May, bright May, once more is come,  
To gladden many a mind.  
It bringeth forth the fragrant flowers:  
Can we more fragrant find?  
The varied tones of songsters sheen,  
The forest clad in beauteous green,  
Combine to make the heart serene.

For her affection I will strive  
Until my life shall end,  
And if my suit should not succeed,  
I'll die in sad lament,  
Unless she pity take on me.  
Her lips that shine so floridly  
Inflict a mortal wound on me.

## LOB DER LIEBE.

*Sieh, biederher man! din gemuete heret,  
Swa ein wib dich minnekliche gruessel,*

## PRAISE OF LOVE.

See, brave man! thy valour rise  
So soon as lovely woman greets thee;  
All thy hopes expand again;  
Her smiles disarm the grief that meets thee.  
Void of love, why, man is nought;  
He feels not love who acts impurely,  
Love, unchaste, is not for him  
Who has the wish of loving purely.

How can love be lauded more?  
We ne'er receive from it but gladness,  
He, who loves, will rightly think:  
It gives to man no thought of badness.  
He o'er whom affection rules,  
Many a virtuous thought exhibits;  
Wise men, also, oft have said,  
'Th' approach of sin it e'en prohibits.

Well for him who love unchaste  
With care avoids! him honor prizes:  
Sin with love is ne'er conjoined;  
Love, what is right, the good advises.  
Wiser people oft have said,  
Love unchaste is sinful surely;  
Love itself is free from sin;  
And hence the joys of loving purely.

To exhibit the spirit of the times we  
ought not to pass over the *Krieg zu Wart-  
burg*, a poetical contest, held at Wartburg  
in the palace of the Landgrave Hermann

of Thuringia, especially as it appears to  
have given occasion to a poem, which has  
been regarded as the first dramatic attempt  
in the German language. This poetical  
strife occurred in the year 1206, and the  
most celebrated poets of the time, Veldeck,  
Eschilbach, Osterdingen, Klingsohr, Wal-  
ther von der Vogelweide, Bieterolf and  
Reinmar the older took part therein. Of-  
terdingen was the occasion of this contest,  
from having mingled, in all his songs,  
praises of Duke Leopold VII of Austria,  
at whose court he resided. Rendered en-  
vious at the estimation in which Osterding-  
en was held, five of them arrayed them-  
selves in opposition to him, celebrating  
Hermann's liberality and valour, and  
hence arose a serious contest in which the  
combatants agreed that the vanquished  
should be hanged. The assembled oppo-  
nents were effectually silenced by Oster-  
dingen, "whose eloquence flowed in  
streams from his lips;" but, rendered con-  
fused by the entrance of the beautiful So-  
phie, Landgravine of Thuringia into the  
hall of the assembly, he was overcome. The  
masters hastened to execute the sentence  
upon him, but he, concealing himself un-  
der the mantle of his princess, found, in  
her, his preserver. Dissatisfied with this  
unexpected issue of the contest, Osterding-  
en begged, that the matter might be re-  
ferred to the decision of Klingsohr, the  
most celebrated poet of his time, who then  
lived at the court of King Andreas of  
Hungary. Klingsohr, accordingly, arrived  
at Wartburg at the end of the year 1207,  
and after several poetical contests, which  
were held at that place, in the presence of  
the family of the Landgrave and of several  
knights, and wherein Wolfram of Eschil-  
bach especially distinguished himself, he  
decided that Osterdingen had gained the  
chief prize. To this decision Klingsohr  
also succeeded in reconciling the irritated  
opponents, when the Landgravine present-  
ed him with a golden chain as a reward  
for his skill and for preserving the honor of  
her favorite. This poem is in MS. at Je-  
na, and has been printed in the *Manes-  
schen Sammlung*. RD.

(To be concluded in the next.)

# EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.— (Continued from page 381.)

Nor is the history of the steam engine,

the great boast of practical men, at all at variance with the positions we have advanced: its chief inventors were not persons connected with the arts to which this machine immediately belongs, and their success seems to have depended on the theoretical turn of their minds, and their familiar acquaintance with the elements of science. The MARQUIS of WORCESTER,\* Capt. SAVARY, NEWCOMEN, and WATT are at the head of the list. The two first appear to have been very ingenious schemers, well acquainted with what was going on in the literary world, and possessed of the rudiments of science. SAVARY probably possessed more than the rudiments, but the Marquis has either purposely exaggerated the effects to be expected from his machines, or was incapable of calculating their action. NEWCOMEN, an ironmonger, was not ignorant of science, as his early correspondence with HOOKE sufficiently testifies. The greatest name upon the list remains behind; nature appears to have formed the capacious mind of WATT for scientific pursuits, and had not early habits given a particular direction to his genius, he would probably have risen to eminence in branches of science more purely philosophic. Acquainted, at the time of his chief invention, with the celebrated Dr. BLACK, he received from him his first knowledge of the doctrine of latent heat; and if, as he observes, this knowledge was not requisite in suggesting that invention, it assisted in its development; whilst a fact recently discovered by CULLEN, that water would boil in vacuo below a hundred, formed the first step to his improvement. WATT seems also to have understood the different capacities which bodies have for heat; and made experiments upon this subject with all the accuracy and method of an able philosopher. It is

hardly possible to read the history which he has himself given of this invention without observing the assistance, which science constantly afforded him, and feeling that Watt's steam-engine is the production of a philosopher whom chance had made well acquainted with art, and not of an artisan slightly instructed in philosophy. His subsequent history fully verifies this idea. Leaving to others the minute details of business, after he had thoroughly mastered them, he busied himself chiefly with the great branches of his profession, and during the moments of leisure which are afforded from business enriched his mind with the treasure of science and literature. "That he should have been minutely and extensively skilled in chemistry and the arts and in most of the branches of physical science" observes his biographer, "might have been conjectured; but it would not have been inferred from his usual occupations, and probably is not generally known, that he was curiously learned in many branches of antiquity, metaphysics, medicine, and etymology, and perfectly at home in all the details of architecture, music, and law. He was well acquainted too, with most of the modern languages, and familiar with their most recent literature. Nor was it at all extraordinary to hear the great mechanician and engineer detailing and expounding, for hours together, the metaphysical theories of the German logicians, or criticising the measures or the matter of the German poetry."

How deeply he had studied chemistry appears from the fact of his having discovered the composition of water before the experiments of CAVENDISH upon the subject were known, and there is even some degree of doubt to which of the two this splendid discovery should be assigned.

The arts immediately connected with clothing might be expected to furnish few examples of scientific improvement, as the difficulties here to be overcome can only be learned by a familiar acquaintance with the professions in which they occur. Yet, even in these branch-

\* This was written prior to the dispute between Arago and the British engineers upon the discovery of the steam engine. A dispute which strongly illustrates the fact that discoveries are the results of the knowledge of the period in which they were made, and are not to be attributed, altogether, to those whose names they bear.

es, some interesting examples may be found of the assistance which a knowledge of theory affords to the inventive mechanic. An artist may, by chance or talent, discover an improvement which is considerably removed from common observation; there are many such, that only require the exertion of ingenuity, and have little dependance on general principles. But the history of those arts in which such improvements chiefly occur will show how different the success of an inventor of this class is, from that of a person who combines a ready talent for mechanical invention with a powerful intellect, rendered more comprehensive and accurate by reading and method. HARGREAVE and ARKWRIGHT afford such a comparison. HARGREAVE was an illiterate man possessed of little mechanical skill or talent. A journeyman weaver, accustomed all his life to one operation, by dint of concentrating his attention upon that one he made an improvement in it which deserves the highest praise, but has no claim to be called a discovery. His first machine, made with a pocket knife, though rude, and full of imperfections that an ordinary mechanic would have removed, brought down upon its author that spirit of persecution that inventors so commonly experience.

The invention of ARKWRIGHT was the production of a superior mind. He is well known to have been a man of an inquisitive turn, fond of reading and mechanical inventions; and his machine for spinning, the "spinning jenny," was consequently of a far higher order of merit than that of his predecessor. It was not, as HARGREAVE's, a contrivance for holding the cotton whilst the spindles wound it off, but an admirable piece of mechanism by which the action of the human hand, in drawing out the yarn, could be imitated, and with more precision than the hand was capable of. The difference between the fortune of these men was such as might have been expected, HARGREAVE died poor, and little known, whilst ARKWRIGHT realized a fortune, and his descendants are now

moving in the higher classes of society. We must not omit to notice that, as in the preceding case, the rage of the workmen was excited against the spinning jenny; mobs roamed over the country destroying these new looms wherever they were to be found, and exhibiting a greater spirit of combination than has usually been witnessed.

We shall next take a few examples from another great division of the arts, that which depends on chemistry. This science has arisen so completely within our own times that its effect upon the arts is readily traced: the process by which the discoveries of science become naturalized among the arts has been more rapid, and from the favorable circumstance of age in which it has taken place, the scientific aspect of these new acquisitions has been less distorted. A few instances will suffice for our purpose. The art of bleaching, as it is now exercised, is altogether due to science; and chiefly to two persons, Dr. HOME of Edinburg, and BERTHOLET. He first introduced the use of acidulated sulphuric acid for the sour milk previously employed, and thereby shortened the operation of bleaching from eight months to four. But the great chemist last named totally altered the art; examining with attention the property what Chlorine has of destroying vegetable colours, he made this powerful agent subservient to the wants of the manufacturer, and, at one step, shortened the period requisite for bleaching to a few days. The new method of bleaching was introduced into England by WATT, and though vehemently opposed, became generally adopted in a short time.

Berthollet has improved other of the chemical arts; especially dying, on which he wrote an admirable treatise; his process for dying with Prussian blue is a striking instance of the application of science to art. The talents and integrity of this great man made him highly esteemed by Buonaparte, and probably saved his life during the terrors of the revolution; a fine picture is drawn by his biographer of the indignant firmness with

which he refused to aid one of **ROBESPIERE's** sanguinary schemes.

**DAVY** has followed the example of **BERTHOLLET** in applying his talents to the ordinary pursuits of life. His work on agriculture, and his safety lamp are successful applications of science to art, and this will probably be the case with his scheme for protecting copper vessels; although it has hitherto failed in the principal application intended.

The improvements in pottery, especially those of **WEDGEWOOD**, in working metals, in lighting cities, and in several other branches of art have been due in a great measure to chemistry. Lithography an art which is becoming of some importance, may also be considered as resulting from the improved state of chemistry. The history of the invention as given by **SENNEFELDER** is an excellent illustration of the assistance which may be afforded by a slight knowledge of theory, and the labour which would have been saved had that knowledge in his case been more extensive.

In naval architecture we shall find the names of **EULER**, **BONQUER**, **DON JOAN**, **ROMMES ATWOOD**, and, above all, of **CHAPMAN**, as writers who have had a material effect upon that art. **CHAPMAN** eminently combined theory and practice, and his skill in construction caused the Swedish ships to be considered as the first in the world; the *Christian* the seventh and the *Norge* having served for a long time as models to the English constructors.

Practical optics will afford a good illustration of the jealousy with which artisans have always regarded persons of scientific acquirements. Opticians usually look upon their art as a mystery, with which mathematicians are little acquainted, and have often treated the pretension of the latter with ridicule. Yet it is certain that the foundation of their profession is strictly scientific, and but for the advance of science could never have existed. Even the discovery of the telescope is not at variance with this assertion. Accident showed that the two spectacle glasses placed in certain posi-

tions, would make distant objects appear nearer, and it would have been possible for long practice, and a succession of happy chances, to improve this discovery sufficiently for constructing a moderately good telescope. But chance has its bounds, two or three lucky hits may follow each other very closely, but ages must elapse before mere chance can unravel an intricate subject. One so involved as the construction of a first rate telescope, the most difficult, we venture to say, of all the works of art, would have required a time approaching to infinity. This was not the method of proceeding which has brought the telescope to its present perfection;—**GALILEO**, **HUYGENS**, **GREGORY**, **NEWTON**, and **DOLLOND**, were the beacons which guided the practical optician in his intricate task. Our readers may be surprised to find **DOLLOND's** name among the theorists, but **DOLLOND** was well versed in mathematics, and owed his discovery of the achromatic telescope to that knowledge.

When theory had brought optics to such a degree of perfection that any further improvement required the errors of workmanship, and the variety of material to be taken into account, art, starting from the point to which theory had carried it, added new perfections of its own; and from this period the geometer and practical optician have been totally separated. Whether the recent discoveries in optics will not again unite them remains to be shown. The gradual deterioration of glass in England, by rendering the workman less confident in his materials, seems to have produced a desire to seek for theoretical assistance; but we are sorry to add that assistance has not hitherto been obtained, the royal society after expending ten thousand pounds upon this subject seeming completely to have failed, and their failure is the more remarkable when contrasted with the brilliant success of **FRAUNHOFER** in Germany.

These instances will be sufficient to maintain the positions we have advanced and to show that the want of connection

between science and art at a certain degree of advancement, has been a detriment to each. Sir JAMES MACKINTOSH has compared the progress of science to a river, whose main stream is an obvious source of wealth, but whose greatest value lies in its numberless tributaries, and the branches it throws off on every side. But this image is not sufficient to represent the course of knowledge, whose waters keep up a perpetual circulation between the main stream and the tributaries, which adds to the value of each. We have observed how much the arts connected with chemistry have improved with the advancement of that science: and if we look beyond the time when literature began to revive, and observe the miserable state of the arts for nearly a thousand years, during which no science existed, and compare this long stagnation with their rapid progress since, we will feel satisfied that the arts and sciences have a very close dependance on each other. The reason why this connection is so little known, we have already mentioned, it will be found in the difficulty of recognising the same facts under different points of view, and clothed in different terms. Whoever will examine the works commonly used in *laying down the lines* in carpentry, or *laying off* in ship building or on the drawing of plans for engineers, will be convinced that a body of geometry has long been incorporated in those arts, precisely similar to that which Monge developed a short time back under the name of *descriptive* geometry. It is a curious fact that the *three rectangular* coordinates, introduced into mixed mathematics by MACLAURIN, and which totally changed the face of that science, have constantly been employed by practical men from an early period. C.C.

(To be continued.)

#### CONVENTION.

(Continued from page 460.)

Tuesday, Nov. 10. Mr. Powell in the chair.

Mr. Giles began by referring to a num-

ber of facts to shew that the general government had disclaimed all "jurisdiction" on the subjects of emancipating or managing slaves. He next adverted to the course pursued by Ohio, as to persons of colour. He said slaves were both persons and property and mentioned some important distinctions between slaves and mere property, in Virginia. He denied that the amendment would operate exclusively in favor of the east; and added that the eastern people had as much interest in protecting persons as the western had; but that the latter had also an interest in lessening the protection to property.

He said that in the formation of the social compact, there were two parties, the governors and governed, and that the conditions of the compact were upon the principle of "*quid pro quo*." Here are then two interests, said he, and the great object is to protect both, would it be wise then to constitute and to protect only one? It was not however the protection of *wealth*, but of the property of the *poor* as well as of the rich.

He said the people of the east had been invited to trust in the morals of the people of the west; but would the people of the west reciprocate the confidence? But government is intended not for moral honorable men, but as a protection against the vices and imperfections of men. He admitted the liberality of Virginia, and contrasted it with the conduct of the general government in the tariff act. He descanted on its mischiefs, and impoverishing tendency. In speaking of the services of the western militia, he said they had received compensation—if that was not sufficient, they should have more, but "for God's sake, said he, do not pay them in your civil or religious rights." He then referred to the right of suffrage—spoke of the inconsistency of those who contended it was a natural right, and yet would limit it, and insisted that it was a question of *expediency* only.

He regarded some remarks made by Mr. Doddridge, which mentioned the greater number of votes given in the west, in favor of a Convention, as implying a threat. But such threats would make him less disposed to depart from the ground he had taken. In speaking of a division of the state, he said the evil would not stop there—it would lead to a separation of the

United States. He spoke of the symptoms of excitement among the people, as showing there was some danger of separation, in which event, he said, the destinies of this country would be settled by the commercial nations of Europe, and not by ourselves. He then asked what *douceurs* our tramontane brethren have to offer them for their assistance. These *douceurs*, he said could be given only by the east.

He said he had gone into this "course of reflexion, for the purpose of exciting reflexion in others and thus bringing about conciliation, which he earnestly recommended. He warned the committee against carrying any question by a lean majority. He then spoke of the comparative facility of pulling down to that of building up, and said it was far better to do nothing than to do mischief. He said that the present constitution had been made by compromise, and that we should follow that example. And he concluding by saying that the statues of its framers should fill the niches in that hall.

Nov. 11. Mr. Chapman Johnson, said that this was a contest for power, "disguise it as you will;" between the two great divisions of the state. He then adverted to the peculiar relation in which he stood to both parties, representing one, and born and now living, with the other, he said that perhaps he ought to have declined taking an active part, but he had hoped that all differences might be reconciled. He said he was no friend to change, had been no advocate for the call of the Convention, though the constitution had some defects, particularly, the inequality of representation, and the unequal apportionment of taxes, under the act of 1782, which he explained. He then gave a history of the Staunton Convention, the proceedings in the legislature which ensued, and the bill reforming the senatorial districts, which would not have been substituted for the call of a Convention, but for an incident in legislation, which he related. Although he would have preferred a limited convention, he had been content with that reformation, and had ever since opposed the call of a convention; until a majority of the freeholders declared themselves in favor of one.

He said he regretted they had not followed the order of debate proposed by Genl. Taylor, from the course of argument

that had been pursued. He had not supposed that any would deny there were principles in the science of government. He shewed that there must be elementary truths in every subject of human reasoning, and not the less so in questions of *expediency* than of *right*. That we may find those primary truths in our own declaration of rights, which embodies the doctrines of Sidney and Locke. Ought these doctrines he asked, to be treated "as vain abstractions, metaphysical subtleties, visionary theories?"

Asking then if the preceding considerations did not recommend an inquiry into the principles comprehended in the bill of rights, he went into a consideration of the first articles of that instrument, to show their fair meaning and application, and especially that the "majority of the people have a right to reform the government," at all times, according to their sense of its defects. This right then of the majority is *expressly* given—but of what majority? Of the majority of the *community*, says the Bill of Rights. Which he explained to mean a majority of the *qualified voters*. He admitted that because the majority have a right to reform the constitution, they also must have the power of ordinary legislation—this, he admitted to be a mere question of expediency.

But in judging of this expediency, we ought not to regard partial and temporary effects, but only those which would promote the lasting interests of society. If in such a view we are led to the conclusion that those interests would be advanced by giving the power to the minority, then the majority ought to yield it, whether that minority consist of "thousands, hundreds, tens or a single unit," but this surrender should be made with great caution, and especially as the question of man's capacity for self government, is an experiment now going on, we should beware, in giving power to the minority, against conceding that he has not this capacity.

In considering the resolution of the legislative committee, he said he did not consider the words white population *exclusively*, meant to preclude a regard to county limits, and that this object, in applying the rule would be to divide the state into two large districts, according to sameness of interests, and assigning to each district its number of representatives, according to its

white population, he would distribute this number among the several *counties*, as equally as was practicable.

He said that in supporting the basis of white population, it was not meant that every white person was equally entitled to vote—but gross numbers were thus resorted to, as a convenient rule to ascertain the qualified voters, but on examination, he thought that it would not equally suit in all the districts, and that the basis of qualified voters, would be more favorable to the eastern part of the state, than would the “white basis.” He was prepared to support the former, if proposed.

He then made a condensed statement of the arguments on which the combined basis was supported, and admitted that the security of property is an essential object in every good government, but denied that there was any thing peculiar in Virginia to make it necessary to that security, to give power to the minority, on the contrary, he maintained that the majority would have most to fear from the minority—and that “property would be most secure, legislation most just and wise, and the people most happy under the rule of the majority.”

He next reviewed the tables furnished by the auditor. By these there are probably now in Virginia 682,000 whites, and 384,000 slaves. In the first or trans Alleghany district 181,000 whites, and 17,000 slaves. In the second or valley district 138,000 whites, and 35,000 slaves. In the third or middle district 197,000 whites, and 221,000 slaves. In the fourth or eastern district 165,000 whites, and 176,000 slaves—making about eight times as many slaves east of the Blue Ridge, as on the west.

On the subject of taxation he admitted there were great inequalities, in the different districts, from the inequality of wealth, but he said that the rule of comparison that had been adapted, was calculated to mislead. He had made an estimate of the average per capita, of the tax paying inhabitants, and it led to a different result—a much less glaring inequality.

Comparing the different districts, according to the above rule, the total tax in 1828 in the first district is one dollar and thirty cents *per capita*; in the second district, three dollars and forty-two cents; in the third district, four dollars and seventy-four cents; in the fourth district four dollars and fifty cents. In this estimate, Rich-

mond, Petersburg and Fredericksburg are included in the fourth district, though their interest lie in the country above them; deducting these then will lessen the difference between the fourth district and the western districts. He assigned some peculiar reasons why the lands in the western district were valued lower than the rest, and in fact too low, in proof of which he referred to the assessor's tables, by which it appeared that lands in the first district were valued but at ninety-two cents per acre. In the valley at seven dollars and thirty-three cents per acre. In the midland district, eight dollars and twenty cents—and forty in the eastern district to eight dollars and three cents. He said a new assessment would considerably change their relative valuation.

He said if taxation should be in proportion to the ability to pay, and the ability be supposed to be in proportion to the amount of labour, then there would be found to be no great inequality in three of the districts—for dividing the taxes paid in each district, by the gross population, then the amount per head in the second, would be twenty-nine cents; in the third, thirty-one cents, and in the fourth, thirty cents. In the first, it would be but fifteen cents from the undervalue of its lands. He said he had made this comparison to shew that there was no danger to be apprehended by wealth from poverty, and that no district was in a state of pauperism. He denied the propriety or relevancy of comparisons between the money a district paid into the treasury or drew from it.

He compared the number of delegates from the several districts, supposing the whole number 120, on the several basis proposed, and it appeared that on a representation by counties the West would have forty-five members, the East seventy-five. By the compound basis, the West would have forty-three, the east, seventy-seven. By the white basis, the west would have fifty-six, the east sixty-four. He considered, however, that the ratio of *qualified voters* would give a different result, and referring to the best *data* in his power, he showed, that, if the number of delegates was in proportion to freehold voters, the west would have forty-seven, the east seventy-three. If extended to house keepers, the west would have fifty, the east seventy. It thus appeared that although power must

pass to the west, it will pass gradually, and on any plan, it must now be, and long continue in the east.

Adverting to the instructions to General Taylor, he lamented the circumstance, and admitting the right to instruct as settled doctrine, he thought there never was a more unfit occasion to exercise it than on this interesting and difficult subject.

He admitted the imprudence of a change in the Constitution against the wishes of a large minority. But if the reform proposed by the committee, (the white basis) be objectionable on this account, would not the amendment proposed (he asked,) be more objectionable as being odious to a majority.—And yet some reform was earnestly desired by the public. He urged farther, that if the white basis were adopted here, it would for several reasons be adopted by a yet larger majority of the people.

He said that on requiring a property qualification for voters, it is not thence conceded that property should have political power; for this qualification, like that of age, sex, &c. is regarded only as evidence of those who are fit to exercise political power. He referred to the argument, drawn from Roman history by Mr. Barbour, and said that the scheme of centuries and tribes designed to balance numbers against wealth, furnished an example rather to be avoided than imitated, and that examples drawn from the antient republics, were too imperfectly known, and too little suited to our circumstances to afford much intrusion: and that a reference to modern republics would aid us as little.

New England, he said, though we are familiar with her institutions, presented no fit model for our imitation. And there can be no peculiar connection between representation and taxation in this country where it is as settled doctrine, that the people are bound by no laws to which they did not consent, as that they shall not be taxed without their consent. Nor can the structure of the English House of Commons support the proposition that representation, is in proportion to taxes when the number of members sent by the cities and borough have no regard to their wealth.

He said that representation according to numbers had been objected to, because it would unduly increase the power of populous districts, having the same interests,

and acting in concert—and yet it was proposed to give the tide water towns weight in proportion to their *wealth* as well as numbers. He denied that the principles of our revolution afforded any ground for supporting the amendment. They teach us, indeed that no people should be taxed by a government in which they are not represented, but not the ratio that one should bear to the other.

As to the federal Constitution, whilst he admitted the wisdom of its provisions, he said, it must be recollected that that was made for thirteen independent sovereignties—but that the Convention were the delegates of a single people—and the apportionment of representatives in the general government was the result of compromise, in proof of which, he referred to the history of the old confederation and of the Constitution which superseded it. The rule then adopted, furnished no evidence of what is just and proper, nor any example for imitation unless the districts of the state were separated, and sent deputies to form a federal constitution. This provision in the Constitution of the U. S. he contended, could not have been intended as a protection to slave property, as it was inadequate to that purpose—its protection was in the want of power to legislate on it. Nor does that constitution apportion representatives to taxation, except occasionally, when direct taxes are laid.

Besides, he said, although such had been the provisions of the federal constitution, it would not follow that they should exist in a government whose functions were so much more various. He referred to the constitution of Massachusetts, and asked, if his opponents would not take her example in one branch of the legislature, why he and his friends should take it in the other. But if the example had any application, it was that the check upon the power of the people should be in the *Senate*, and not in the popular branch. South Carolina, he said, had been circumstanced like Virginia, after 1803, then, the eastern part of the State, fearing the power of the west, procured an amendment to the Constitution, which based representation on taxation and numbers combined—but because a large *majority* did that there, it is no recess that a minority should do the same thing here. But in spite of this amendment, the west has since obtained



the ascendancy there, the fears of the East have proved unfounded, and the government proceeds in perfect harmony.

He said if this question were to be tried by examples drawn from other States, the weight of authority would be against the proposed limitation, and he referred to several constitutions of the States with, and without slaves.

### AMERICANISMS.

(Continued from page 457.)

**Samp.** "Corn broken coarsely, boiled and mixed with milk." *Indian.*

**Sauce.** "Every common, esculent vegetable." *New England.*

**Sauce marketers.** "Farmers who supply the markets with vegetables." *New England.*

**Scow.** "A large, flat bottomed boat," perhaps from the Hollandish, *Schuyt.*

**Season.** Weather—as "a good season for planting." *South.*

**Section.** "Part, quarter" &c. as "in this section of the country."

**Sectional.** From section—"local"—as "sectional, feelings;" i.e. local feelings.

**Shote.** "A young hog," this is often considered an Americanism. It is common in the south east of England and was used generally in Minsheu's time.—*"Shots porcos dicunt qui unicum agunt annum."*

**Slang-whanger.** "A noisy talker or newspaper writer."

**Sled.** "A carriage for heavy articles on the snow." *New England.*

**Sleigh.** "A snow carriage for the conveyance of light articles." *New England.*

**\*Snaptious and Ripsnaptious.** "Smart, spruce," *South and west.*

**\*Sockdologer.** "A decisive blow"—one, in the slang language "capable of setting a man a thinking."

**\*Sparse.** "Thin, settled here and there." *Universal.*

**Span.** Perhaps from the German *Gespann*—"a pair"—as "a span of horses." *New England.*

**Spell.** "A fit, a period," as a spell of sickness. *General.*

**Spile.** "A spigot."

**\*Splendid.** This word is used more hyperbolically than in England—as "a splendid piece of beef."

**Springy.** "Active, agile" *New England.*

**Squatter.** "A person who enters upon new lands and cultivates them without permission of the owners."

**To squiggle.** "To move about like an eel." *New England vulgarism.*

**Staging.** "Scaffolding"—*General.*

**Stalled.** A wagon set fast in the road is said to be stalled.

**Store.** "A shop"—this is not used in England: although it is in some of the colonies.

**Suability.** "liability to be sued."

**\*Stud.** "A stallion:" "to take the stud"—to be obstinate: originally applied to a horse that refuses to go on.

**Subscriber.** "The undersigned:" as "the subscriber informs his friends" &c. (See *Museum* p. 3.)

**Succotash.** "A mixture of new, soft maize and beans boiled." *Indian.*

**To Systemize.** "To reduce to a system."

**\*Tartar.** "Tartar Emetic"—an unwarrantable use of the word: *Tartar* means crystals of Tartar—cream of Tartar. The misnomer might be the cause of accidents.

**To Tote.** "To carry, convey, remove, to carry on the back."—This word is common in Massachusetts and in the southern states. If we mistake not, Mr. Webster considers it a word introduced by the negroes. This is improbable. *To Tolle* from Lat. *Tollere* is an old word, signifying to take away, and *Tolt* is an old law term, thus defined by Minsheu. "*Tolt*, tolt, is a writ whereby a cause depending in a court Baron is removed into the county court." We are probably, therefore, indebted to the law for it.

**Town.** "A district of certain limits; also, the inhabitants or legal voters of a town"—*Webster.*—*New England.*

**Trade.** "Doctor's trade:" that is "drugs or medicine." The same as *truck.* *New England.*

**\*Truck.** See *Trade.*

*Ugly.* "Ill tempered, bad," as "he is an *ugly* fellow," i. e. of a bad disposition, wicked. *New England.*

To *Variate.* A word used by the clergy, as "*variate* of thy mercies according to our circumstances." It is not English.

✓ *\*Vine.* "Any creeping plant." In England it is restricted to the plant that bears the grape.

*\*To Whip.* "To beat,"—as "my dog can *whip* yours." *Vulgarism. Southern States.*

In the above enumeration, we have designedly omitted the immense catalogue of words contained in Pickering's vocabulary, which are still used in England, in the Provinces or are employed in good society. We have confined ourselves chiefly, as we proposed, to those which have either been coined here, or are employed in a new signification.

The *reputed* Americanisms will engage us next.

*See page 488. R.D. 1829.*

#### ROMAN PROVERBS.

A writer in a recent number of "*Blackwood's Magazine*," June 1829, has given a few verses from the "Trinity of Wisdom" whence the well known Italian proverb of "*Aspettare e non venire*" has been borrowed. This "trinity" consists of a number of verses. Of these the following, to which we have added a translation, are the best. In some of them excellent moralities are conveyed; others are humorous only; but most of them would seem to be founded in a practical knowledge of human nature:—

##### *La trinità della Sapienza.*

Tre sorte di persone sono odiose:  
Il povero superbo,  
Il ricco avaro,  
Il vecchio pazzo.

Tre sorte d'uomini da fuggire:  
Cantori,  
Vecchi,  
Innamorati.

Tre cose imbrattano la casa:  
Galline,

Cani,  
Donne.

Tre cose conservano l'amico;  
Onorarlo in presenza,  
Lodarlo in assenza,  
Ajutarlo ne' bisogni.

Tre cose sono desiderabili;  
Sanità,  
Buona fama,  
Ricchezza.

Tre cose da morire:  
Aspettar e non venire,  
Star a letto e non dormire,  
Servire e non gradire.

##### *The trinity of wisdom.*

Three sorts of persons are odious:  
The proud poor,  
The covetous rich,  
The foolish dotard.

Three sorts of men avoid:  
Musicians,  
Old people,  
Lovers.

Three things dirty a house:  
Fowls,  
Dogs,  
Women.

Three things preserve a friend:  
Honour him when present,  
Praise him when absent,  
Assist him when in need.

Three things are desirable.  
Health,  
Reputation,  
Riches.

Three things are enough to destroy.  
To expect without coming,  
To be in bed without sleeping,  
To serve without pleasing.

*old*

#### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

*Students of the University*—The actual number of matriculates in the University is greater than it has ever been in *any period* of a former session, except of one.

PUBLISHED BY F. CARR.

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## AMERICANISMS.

(Continued from page 460.)

"Words are the people's but there is a choice of them to be made."

BEN JONSON'S *Discoveries*.

We have now investigated those words and expressions, which may fairly be considered as having originated in this country; some having been coined and others having received an extension of signification. Many of the words and expressions admitted into the catalogue are, as has been already remarked, probably local, whilst others are mere vulgarisms; so that the number of *Americanisms* in general use is really very restricted. Taking the vocabulary of Pickering as our guide the catalogue of *reputed Americanisms* is much more extensive. In looking over the remarks, which have been made by various English Pseudo critics on this subject, the ignorance which they display, regarding their own tongue, is surprising.

To distinguish correctly the words, which are of American origin, from those which are not, requires, indeed, an extensive acquaintance, not only with the language as now used by the most approved writers, but also with its condition at former periods; as well as with the various provincialisms which exist in England and those of Ireland and Scotland; into these we shall now inquire; first of all, enumerating the "*reputed Americanisms*" which are *Provincialisms*; and afterwards those which are

either in common use in England or have become obsolete.

## REPUTED AMERICANISMS.

*English, Scotch and Irish Provincialisms.*

*Attack'd-ed.* A vulgarism in the United States. This word, we have previously seen, (*Museum* p. 214) is a common Cockneyism. All the participles so formed, sufficiently betray their origin.

*Awful.* "Disagreeable, ugly"—*New England*. We have heard the word employed in this sense in Scotland.

*Be.* Mr. Pickering has noticed that *be* was formerly much used in New England instead of *am* and *are*. This was at one time good English, and is still largely Provincial. We have already remarked, at page 238, under the "*Dialects of the West England*," that the verb *to be* retains its primitive form there. Instead of *I am* &c. *I be, thou beest, or bist, thee beest, we be, you be, they be*, are constantly heard. *War* for *was* and *were*, likewise runs through all the persons. "*I war* just a going" is in the mouth of every Somersetshire rustic and is common in many counties.

*Bonnyclabber.* "Sour milk." This word is, we believe, not used in any part of England. In Ireland, according to Mr. Todd, it means "sour butter milk." It seems to have been formerly English. Thus old Ben,

"It is against my freehold, my inheritance  
To drink such balderdash as bonnyclabber  
New Inn.

## And Swift—

We scorn for want of talk, to jabber  
Of parties o'er our *bonnyglabber*.

**Brief.** Probably a corruption of *rife*.  
"Prevalent, common, rife." This was formerly employed in England, in the same sense in which we use it. It is now provincial. We have often heard it in the north of England.

Mr. Pickering remarks, that a correspondent informs him, that *brief* is used by the illiterate in Virginia, as well as in the northern states, but only in speaking of diseases. Mr. Pickering's correspondent is mistaken. We hear, in Virginia, of the "wind being *brief*."

**Chunk.** "A thick, short, block of wood." This is used in the Southern and Eastern counties of England, and is probably corrupted from *chump*. It is universal in this country; and, from the substantive, has been formed the adjective *chunky*, applied to a *dumpy* person—as "he is a short, *chunky* man."

**Clitchy.** "Clammy, sticky, glutinous." *New England*.

**Clatchy** is said to be provincial in the West of England. It is not in the "Observations on some of the dialects of the West of England" by Mr. Jennings.

**To compromit.** "To commit, expose, hazard." This word, in the sense of "to pledge," is old English.

"*Compromytting* themselves in the name of all their country, to abide and perform all such sentence and awarde, as should by him be given."

Sir T. Elyot.

The word is now obsolete in England, but it is used in Scotland.

"Then both the said parties were *compromit* by their oaths to stand at the deliverance of the arbitrators."

Pittscottie, Ed. 1768.

**Crock.** "The black of a pot or of a chimney." This is in Todd's edition of Johnson, quoted from *Ray's south and east country words*, but it is a provincialism in most of the counties. It is so in the south and east, according to Ray. Brockett, in his *Glossary of north country words* has "*crock*—a flake of soot in an

open chimney." The verb "*to crock*," to black with soot, is used also in Essex. In the west of England, *crock* is the name of a bellied pot, either of iron or other metal, for the purpose of boiling food, so called perhaps on account of its being "*crocked*" over.

**Docity.** "Quick comprehension." It is a Londonism, and according to Grose a provincial in Gloucestershire. It is manifestly a corruption from *docility*.

**Drouth.** "Drought." Mr. Webster has gone into a laboured defence of this word, as being nearer the Anglo Saxon, *drugotha*, whence it originates, than the present English spelling and pronunciation.

Height was unquestionably spelled and pronounced by Milton *highth*, and the Saxon termination is equally in *th*, *hethe*, *hieth*, but no well educated individual, would now write and pronounce it so.

The truth is that, in language, we are eternally compelled to take things as they are, without regard to what they may have been; and he who may wish to carry us back to that which we have long rejected will find but few to accompany him. The word *drouth* is a provincialism of the west of England, as well as "to drow," to dry.

**Folks.** This word in the sense of "persons in one's family" is much used in New England; and is provincial in the North of England. "How are your *folks* to day? i.e. "How is your *family* to day?" Pronounced *fock* it is universal in Scotland. "How's your *fock*?" perhaps from Anglo Saxon, *fole*, family.

**Frough or Frow.** "brittle, loose, spungy"—also *froughy*. This word is used by Evelyn.

"That (timber) which grows in gravel is subject to be *frow* (as they term it, and brittle."

It is now not used except in the provinces, in almost all of which it prevails. It is a provincialism of Berkshire and in the northern counties particularly: (See *Grose*, *Ray*, *Jennings*, *Tim Bobbin*, *Brockett*—*Craven Dialect* &c.)

**Gawky.** "A stupid, halfwitted or awkward person." This is provincial in the north of England; and is in all the

glossaries of the northern dialects. It has always been used in Scotland, and was probably imported into the northern counties from thence. It is there, however, written and pronounced:—*Goukit, Gauckit, Guckit.*

"Fool *goukit* chield, sic stuff as that to true;  
Gin ye believe them, nane will credit you."

*Morison.*

It is from Teutonic *Geck*, a fool.

*Glut.* "A large wooden wedge." *New England.* Used in the middle counties of England. It is a particular application of the word *glut* in the sense of "any thing that fills up a passage."

*Gostering* or *Gaustering*—"imperious, boasting." *West.*

This is a provincialism of the north of England, in universal use.

To *guess.* "To imagine, suppose, believe." This word, so much used in the eastern states, as well as *expect, reckon* &c., is as local in some of the counties in England. *Guess*, in the sense of "suppose," is employed in Derbyshire (*Pegge*) and it is heard in other parts.

*Gumption.* "Common sense, understanding." This is a common provincialism. It is frequently heard in London, and in the North of England and in Scotland. To *gaum*, in the north of England, signifies to understand, and *gumption* or *gawmition* is the substantive. It is as old as the Moes. Goth. *gaum-jan* to perceive.

"Sometimes I think it rank presumption  
In me to claim the muses' *gumption.*"

*Rev. J. Nicol's Poems.*

From this word is formed *rumgumption*, having the same signification in Scotland and most parts of England.

They need not try thy jokes to fathom,  
They want *rumgumption.*

*Beattie.*

In Yorkshire—*rumgumption* means "forward and pompous."

*Heft.* "Weight" i.e. of the thing which is *heaved*. It is not uncommon in one or two of the counties of the south of England.

*Hither and yon.* "Here and there"—*New England.* Grose says this ex-

pression is provincial in the North of England. *Hither and yont*, in Scotland, has the same meaning, as well as that of "*topsy-turvy.*"

*Housen.* "Houses." This old plural is used in New England. In the west of England and in some of the midland counties they adhere to this old Saxon form. See *Dialects of the west of England* in *Museum* p. 237.

*Hub.* The nave of a wheel." Not used in many counties of England.

*Jag.* "A small load." *New England.* This is a provincialism in Norfolk and Suffolk.

*Jounce.* "A jolt or shake"—as "a *jouncing* trot;" provincial in the same counties.

*Kedge.* "Brisk, in good health and spirits"—as "how do you do?" "I am *kedge.*" Provincial in the same counties.

*Keeping room.* "A room for keeping." *New England.* Provincial in some counties. The number of east-of-England provincialisms is an historical evidence, that many of the New England settlers must have come from thence.

*Kilter* or *kelter.* "Good condition, order"—as "out of *kilter*"—out of order. This is heard over all England and Scotland. In the west *kilter* means money—"out of *Kilter*," out of money and necessarily out of order.

*Lease.* A cow lease, that is, a right of pasturage for a cow, in a common pasture. *New England.* The word *leas*, in the west of England, Jennings thinks, always means stubble land or land similar to stubble land.

*Lift.* Used by some of the New England farmersto signify a sort of gate without hinges. A *lift gate*, in the east of England, in Norfolk and Suffolk, signifies the same thing.

*Links.* "Sausages"—*New England.* Provincial in the same counties. *R.D.*  
(To be continued.) *See page 531*

ENCYCLOPEDIA AMERICANA, VOL II.

We have received the second volume of this work, including the articles be-

tween BAT and CAT. It deserves the favorable sentiments, which we expressed of its predecessor; but it has many of the same faults. The rejection of articles, admitted into the German original, has been even more profuse, and there is still more difficulty in accounting for the selection. The biographical department has been dealt with in the most unsparing manner, although the actual amount of biographical sketches may be as great, from the numbers which have been added. Some of these are, however, drawn up very carelessly. We will take that on the present Bishop of London as an example. The writer of that article seems not to have had the slightest idea, that Dr. Blomfield holds any station in the church more dignified than that of chaplain to the Bishop of London.

"To the fame" he remarks" which his philological and theological studies procured, was indebted, in 1819, for the office of chaplain to the Bishop of London—a choice which always falls on a man of acknowledged ability. Being his duty to examine the candidates, previously to their ordination in this diocese. Places of this sort generally lead to high promotions in the church, and B. soon after received the living of St. Botolphs. Since that time he has lived in London, visits in the first circles, and supports an establishment suitable to his income &c."

The truth is, Dr. Blomfield was made Bishop of Chester certainly *five* years ago; and rendered himself somewhat celebrated for his speeches in the house of Lords on the subject of Catholic emancipation during Mr. Canning's administration; and it is now upwards of twelve months since he was elevated to the very Bishopric, to whose incumbent he was chaplain, at the time referred to in the article.

In the fine arts, or what the Germans call *Æsthetics*, the translation is inferior to the original. Sufficient attention is still not paid also to the words &c. of antiquity. If we are to have the corrupted, the editor ought to favor us with the classical names likewise. Brun-

*dusium* is there, but we have no intimation that such a word as *Brentesion* or *Brentesium* ever existed. So likewise we have *Bosphorus*, a word not to be met with in any antient writer, whilst the genuine name *Bosporus* is not once alluded to.

## ON SUPERSTITION.—No. 3.

### ON SYMPATHY.

"For not to rank nor sex confined  
"Is this vain ague of the mind;  
"Hearts firm as steel, as marble laid,  
"Gainst faith, and love, and pity barred,  
"Have quaked like aspen leaves in May,  
"Beneath its universal sway."

SCOTT'S *Rokeby*.

Between every portion of the living machine intimate relations exist, which correspond with each other, and carry on a reciprocal intercourse of action. When all these actions harmonize perfectly, health is the result: if not disease is the consequence. Hence it is, that impressions not only produce effects on the part to which they are directly applied, but on distant organs: and this indirect effect is produced by sympathy. Vegetables exhibit this property as well as animals—if a leaflet of the sensitive plant be stimulated by a burning glass, the whole leaf contracts, and the footstalk drops:—when the branches of trees feel the warmth of summer, the sap ascends in the roots; and, even in frost, it will ascend from the roots through the stem, if a branch be introduced into a hot house.

This mysterious consent of parts has given rise to some of the most singular and absurd superstitions that can be imagined. It was believed, for instance, almost universally in the fifteenth century, that an intimate sympathy existed not only between parts of a body forming portions of one whole, but also between any substance that had formed part of a body but was at the time removed from it; that if, for example, a piece of flesh was sliced from the arm of one person and made to unite to that of a second—the grafted portion would accurately sympathize with the body of which it had previously formed part—undergoing decay and death along with it.

This fancied sympathy, it was even proposed to turn to good account: for example on the ingrafted portions, it was recommended, that the alphabet should be traced and when any of the letters so traced was touched or imitated, it was asserted, that the party, from whom the piece of flesh was taken, would feel similar impressions.

But Sir Kenelm Digby, of whose sympathetic powder mention will be made, when considering the subject of "*superstitious cures and preventives*," went infinitely farther than this:—he asserted, that such a miraculous consent existed between the body and all that had previously formed part of it—that if we were to run a hot iron into the excrement of any person—he would feel a sensation of burning in the part whence it had proceeded.

The writer of a recent article on animal magnetism, in the *American Quarterly Review* (No. VIII.) has referred to the ancient superstition that grafts of flesh, united to another body, died when the person died from whom they had been taken: and he has quoted a case from Thourët's work on animal magnetism—of a man at Brussels, who had an artificial nose, made after the Taliacotian method, and which served every useful purpose, until the person, from whom it was taken, happened to die, when it suddenly became cold and livid and finally fell off. Some of our readers may not be aware of the meaning of this Taliacotian operation or *nose grafting*, notwithstanding it has engaged the attention of the medical public frequently during the present century. It may be briefly stated that, during the fifteenth century, in the town Tropea in Calabria, three inexperienced persons, Vincent Vianeo of Maida, Branca and Bojani made the first attempts of the kind in Europe—for it is an old Indian operation—shaping out of the muscles of the arm a piece of flesh, of a nasal form and adhering to the limb by a few fibres: the arm was subsequently fixed to the place, so that the pared surface of the nose came in contact with the raw portion of flesh. The arm was kept in this situation until adhesion had taken place, when the fibres and vessels which united it with the new nose were divided. In the following century the operation was still farther improved by

Gaspard Tagliacozzi or Taliacotius as he has been latinized, Professor at Bologna, who acquired such celebrity by the operation, that his native city erected a statue, in honor of him, having a nose in its hand, and the operation received the name *Taliacotian*. Since this period it has been repeatedly, and successfully, practised, not by obtaining the flesh from the arm, but from the forehead.—Tagliacozzi lived in the very era of superstition, when the belief of the death of the parent and the graft was universally credited, or when, in defiance of observation, it was considered that, from sympathy, they must necessarily die together: accordingly, this folly has not escaped Butler in his *Hudibras*—

"So learned Taliacotius from  
"The brawny part of porter's—  
"Cut supplemental noses which  
"Would last as long as parent breech;  
"But when the date of Neck was out,  
"Off dropped the sympathetic snout."

Little less singular was the superstition—that the wounds of a murdered person will bleed afresh, on the body being touched, ever so lightly, in any part, by the murderer. This idea gave rise to the trial by *Blood*, which has been worked up with so much dramatic skill by Sir Walter Scott, in one of his recent novels—"St. Valentine's day or the Fair Maid of Perth." The annals of judicial inquiry furnish us with many instances of this gross superstition which still exists amongst the lower orders in some parts of Great Britain.

In the year 1688, a gentleman of the name of Stansfield was tried and found guilty, at Edinburgh, for the murder of his own father. Having strangled him, he caused the body to be thrown into water. The appearances about the corpse, however were such, that both the faculty of physic and that of surgery gave it as their opinion, that the deceased had been strangled and not drowned.

The indictment in this case amongst other things remarks.—

"And that, upon the—day of November last, the said Sir James Stansfield, coming from Edinburgh to his house at New Milns, and going into his chamber to rest, about 10 o'clock at night, and being alone in the room, under the credit, trust, and assurance of the said Philip his son, and his own servants within his family; the said Philip did consult with one George

Tomson and divers other persons, how to murder him; and that, accordingly, they did murder and strangle him in his bed-chamber; and in the dead of night carried him from the said room, and threw him into a pond near the house. That the next morning when the body was found, the said Philip caused it to be buried in haste, and refused to stay till his friends and physicians viewed it. That the body being taken up again by authority and inspected by surgeons, it appeared to have been strangled and not drowned. And that his nearest relations being required to lift the corpse into the coffin after it had been inspected; upon the said Philip Stansfield touching of it (according to God's usual method of discovering murder, says the framer of the indictment) it bled afresh upon the said Philip and that thereupon he let the body fall, and fled from it in the greatest consternation; crying lord have mercy upon me. And that the said Philip being found by an assize to be actor, art and part of the aforesaid crimes, one or other of them; he ought to be punished for the treasonable crimes above specified, with forfeiture of life, lands and goods: and for the other crimes above mentioned capitally, and with the pains of death and confiscation of moveables to the terror and example of others &c."

On this portion of the indictment the king's advocate remarked—That as to the body bleeding,—although several persons touched it, none of their hands were besmeared with blood but the prisoner's: and that the body having lain two days in the grave, in a cold season, the blood must naturally be congealed. That the lifting about the body, and even the incision that was made, causing no such effusion before, but only of some water or gore, and should upon the prisoner's first touching it begin to bleed afresh! he must ascribe it to the wonderful providence of God, who, in this manner, discovers murder especially since no natural reason could be assigned for it: and that the horrible impressions it made on the prisoner, notwithstanding his resolution to the contrary, might be urged as another argument of his guilt." (Celebrated trials &c vol II. p. 570.)

A case of a similar nature, as exhibiting this fancied effect of sympathy, is said to have occurred in our own country, as lately as the year 1767. It is contained in

the following attestation of the Coroner of Bergen county, New Jersey.

"On the 23d day of September, in the year of our lord, 1767, I, Johannes Demarest, Coroner of the county of Bergen and province of New Jersey, was present at a view of the body of one Nicholas Tuers, then lying dead, together with the jury which I summoned to enquire of the death of the said Nicholas Tuers. At that time a negro man, named Harry, belonging to Hendrick Christians Zabriskie, was suspected of having murdered the said Tuers: but there was no proof of it and the negro denied it. I asked if he was afraid to touch Tuers. He said no, he had not hurt him: and immediately came up to the corpse lying in the coffin: and then Staats Storm,—one of the jurors—said "I am not afraid of him, and stroked the dead man's face with his hand, which made no alteration in the dead person, and (as I did not put any faith in any of these trials) my back was turned towards the dead body, when the jury ordered the negro to touch the dead man's face with his hand; and then I heard a cry in the room of the people saying: "he is the man" and I was desired to come to the dead body; and was told that the said negro Harry had put his hand on Tuer's face, and that the blood immediately ran out of the nose of the dead man Tuers. I saw the blood on his face, and ordered the negro to put his hand again on Tuer's face: he did so, and immediately the blood again ran out of the said Tuers' nose at both nostrils, near a common table spoonful at each nostril, as well as I could judge: whereupon the people all charged him with being the murderer: but he denied it for a few minutes: and then confessed that he had murdered the said Nicholas Tuers, by first striking him on the head with an axe, and then driving a wooden pin in his ear: though afterwards he said he struck a second time with his axe, and then held him fast till he had done struggling: when that was done, he awaked some of the family and said Tuers was dying he believed.—Johannes Demarest, Coron.—(*Annual Register* for 1767, p. 144.)

The prevalent opinion, that the murdered body bleeds in the presence of the murderer is alluded to by many of the older poets. Thus Shakspeare in "*Richard III.*"



"O! gentlemen, see, see! dead Henry's wounds

"Open their congeal'd mouths and bleed afresh!

"Blush, blush, thou lump of foul deformity;

"For 'tis thy presence that exhales this blood."

Webster in his tragedy of "*Appius and Virginia*," published about the middle of the seventeenth century, has a similar allusion.

"See

"Her wounds still bleeding at the horrid presence

"Of yon stern murderer, till she find revenge."

The only other superstitions connected with this subject of which we have any knowledge, are the following, which are as idle as they are general.

If a person be suddenly taken with a shivering it is a sign, that some one has just then walked over the site of his future grave. Probably, as Grose has observed, all persons are not subject to this sensation: otherwise the inhabitants, of those places whose burial grounds are in exposed situations, would live in a constant fit of shivering.

When a person's cheek or ear burns, it is a sign that some one is then talking of him. If it is the right cheek or ear, the discourse is to his advantage: if the left, to his disadvantage.

Lastly. When the right eye itches, the party affected will shortly cry: if the left, he will laugh.

#### THE GERMAN LANGUAGE.—No. 1.

The German language is the oldest of all the modern languages of Europe; it surpasses every other in copiousness, flexibility and energy, and is inferior to none in its capabilities of high cultivation. It is as fit for familiar and heartfelt discourse as it is far solemn, figurative and impassioned oration, as proper for every kind of versification and poetry as for the expression of all abstract and philosophical ideas.

The language has grown and improved with the people that spoke it, and therefore is identified with every national peculiarity of character and manners, and is thus, emphatically, the property of the German nation.

The space allotted to us in these pages will not permit us to trace in detail the

circumstances under which this language has arisen, from its rude infancy and barbarism to its present comparatively high degree of perfection: we shall, therefore, give only the principal traits of its history, embracing a space of about twenty centuries. In order to facilitate the survey of such a history we shall divide it, according to the most important historical phenomena, into seven periods as follow:

1. *The Gothic period.* From the first appearance of the Germanic nations until Charlemagne, 113 years before Christ to 768 years after Christ.

2. *The Frankish period.* From Charlemagne until the time of the Swabian emperors of Germany (768, to 1137.)

3. *Period of the Swabian amatory poets (minnesingers.)* From the time of the Swabian emperors until the establishment of the first German Universities. (1137 to 1347.)

4. *Period of the "Meistersingers"* or popular poets incorporated in Guilds like other artisans, as shoemakers, tailors &c. which trades those poets often exercised.

5. *Period (1343 to 1625.) of the revival of arts and sciences (1523 to 1625.)*

6. *Period of conflicting opinions as to matters of taste in the German literary productions (1625 to 1751.)*

7. *Period of high classical perfection in German literature from 1751 to 1829.*

#### First period.

The oldest history of the German language, together with that of the people that spoke it, is lost in impenetrable obscurity, through which is seen merely that little which some ancient Greek and Roman geographers and historians have handed down to us in their writings. According to those authors, such as Strabo, Pomponius Mela, Cæsar, Tacitus and Ptolemy, the German is not a derived but the original language of a great people divided into many branches, such as Teutones, Cimbri, &c., who inhabited Asia long before the birth of Christ, along the shores of the Black sea and the Caspian, and who, by degrees, and from different points, moved on to Europe, occupying particularly the middle and northern parts of that continent.

The original language of the different branches of the same nation, thus divided

by their migrations and extension over a great tract of country, without political union, could not fail, under the mighty influence of new climates, altered modes of life, and intermixture with foreign tribes, to be divided and subdivided into a great number of different dialects.

Those branches of the nation that had settled on the Rhine and the Danube, soon became formidable to the Romans, under the name of Germani (*Guerre man, were man, war man, warrior*) as very powerful and intrepid warriors, who defended their liberty to the last. These Germani were a principal nation and spoke a dialect of their own. A part of them entered Belgium and made themselves masters of it, subduing the Gallic inhabitants of that country; but in process of time they adopted the language of their subjects who were more numerous than themselves. These Belgi, united probably with the Cimbri, then not much known and who inhabited Juteland, migrated into Britain, where the remnants of them still call themselves Kymri in their language.

Pytheas, a Greek astronomer, who lived at Marseilles, and, about the year 320 before Christ, made a commercial voyage into the north on account of his Republic, gives a description of three other Germanic nations, the Guttones (the *Jutes*) the then inhabitants of the Peninsula, Juteland, the Tentones (the *Dutch*) the then inhabitants of Mecklenbourg, Holstein and Pommerania and the Ostiones (the *Esthians*) the inhabitants of the present Russian coast from Pillau to Courland. The inhabitants of Juteland, who in after times appear under the name of Cimbri, in alliance with the Teutones, their neighbours, in the year 113, 112, 109, and 103, before Christ, invaded the southern and western parts of Europe and especially Italy, beat the Romans in several engagements, but were at last, according to the accounts of the Roman historians, so beaten themselves by the Roman consul Marius, that not a man escaped to return to his country! From this time the history of the Germans becomes clearer and clearer, especially from the accounts of Cæsar, who waged war with them from the year 56, to 51 before Christ. From their high notions of freedom which would not allow them to bend under any yoke whatever, they were involved in continual wars with the Romans in

which Ariovistus (*Ehrenrest*, firm in honor) and Arminius (*Hereman*, army leader) distinguished themselves by their bravery and generalship. By Arminius, the Roman army, under Varus, suffered a disgraceful defeat.

These wars were continued for several ages with various success, till at last the Romans were completely overthrown by their Germanic antagonists.

During those long, uninterrupted struggles against their enemies for the preservation of their liberty, the Germans had little leisure for cultivating and improving their language according to its peculiar genius; all they did was to adopt a number of words from the languages of the different nations with which they came in contact, but especially from the Roman. Inner Germany, however, kept itself freer from these foreign influences, and its language, though divided into different dialects, from the great number of independent tribes that often made war on one another, retained in a great measure its genuine Germanic character.

Among the multiplicity of tribes of the same origin there were necessarily some nearer allied to one another; so that they may be properly divided into two principal branches of the same nation, the Suevi and Cimbri. The Suevi were divided into more than thirty tribes. The Goths, Marcomans, Burgundians, Herulians, Lombards, Vandals, Allemans &c. They all inhabited the northern and eastern part of Germany, which however, on their migrating to the South, they afterwards left to be occupied by the Slavonic nations. The Cimbri inhabited all western Germany, and farther to the west they had the Kelts in Gaul, and, to the east, the Suevi for their neighbours. They were divided into three principal branches. The Belgians in Gaul, the Germans on the Rhine, the lower Elbe and Juteland; and the Scandinavians in Sweden. These were again subdivided into different tribes. The Belgic branch of that nation soon ceased to be considered belonging to them, as they adopted the Celtic language and manners. The principal tribes of the German Cimbri were the Sigambres, Jutes, Cheruskans, Franks, Saxons and Friesians; of the Scandinavian Cimbri only the Sniones are known as the first inhabitants of Sweden, who, in after-times, mixed with the Goths,—a number of

whom had migrated into Sweden from the banks of the Danube; not from Sweden to the Danube, as has been erroneously stated by some authors.

The consideration of the difference here mentioned between the two principal branches of the Teutonic or Germanic nation, is very important as relates to the German language; for it occasioned that diversity, so remarkable even in our days, between the languages spoken in the low lands and the high lands of Germany, under the name of low Dutch and high Dutch. The oldest documents we have prove that the Suevi spoke the high, but the Cimbri, the low Dutch.

B

(To be continued.)

For the Virginia Literary Museum.

## A MORISCO BALLAD.

As a *passa-tiempo* in an hour of idleness, I attempted the following translation or paraphrase rather, as I might more properly term it.—My humble version conveys but a faint idea of the beauty of the original, which indeed must necessarily lose much by any translation whatsoever.

In Don Manuel Quintana's preface to a selection of Spanish poetry (*Poesias Selectas. Madrid. 1807.*) the reader will find a very lively and interesting description of the peculiar national characteristics &c. of the Spanish romances, from which the ballad before us is selected as a specimen of that style of composition. They were extremely popular and deservedly so. The chastity and brilliancy of imagery,—the freshness and vigor of style—the delicate tone of maternal feeling and the elegant simplicity of expression which distinguishes these little pieces, place them in strong contrast with the extravagant and oftentimes unintelligible rhapsodies of subsequent poets (especially the *culteranismo*s) whose principal aim, it would seem from their works, is to perplex the understanding by far fetched metaphor and obscure allusion. The general applause which greeted the public appearance of the first collection of these *romanceros*, (as they were entitled) induced Lope de Vega and Gongora, the most eminent poets of the day to attempt that description of composition. By the way, it is much to be lamented that the

latter, whose genius was decidedly of the first order, did not adhere more closely to the style of the beautiful models before him—Many of his earlier productions are full of merit; but the observant reader will, here and there, detect among them some of those blemishes which occur so frequently in his later writings, after his taste had become wholly vitiated. Lope also abounds in conceit and gross affectation, but his defects bear no comparison with those of the famous inventor of the *cullismo*—

\* R — N

Petersburg, January, 1830.

"NO EN AZULES TACHELIES," &amp;c.

No crescent sabres bright with gold  
Beneath their azure sashes' fold—  
No Lybian turbans gracefully  
Their tall plumes waving light and free—  
As the afflicted soldiery  
Of Aliatar, hapless Moor,  
Arrayed in mourning—four by four,  
The city enter solemnly.

In sadness marching, on they come  
With trumpet hoarse and muffled drum

The Phoenix glancing in its pride  
Upon their banners floating wide,  
That flashed with beam so fiery,  
The winds breathed on it fearfully,  
Is now alas! in sign of woe,  
By the sad bearer carried low;  
The gathering emblem sweeps the plain,  
And on the silk is many a stain—

In sadness marching &amp;c.

A hundred men from Lybias plain  
Forined Aliatar's gallant train,  
When to defend Mobril and save  
His brother, rode that warrior brave,  
He sallied forth on courser gay;  
Stretched on a sable bier; to day  
They bear him lifeless through the gate,  
From whence he urged his steed so late.

In sadness marching &amp;c.

Among the reeds that lined the way  
The master knights in ambush lay,  
From whence they rushed out furiously  
Upon their coming enemy—  
On that eventful day was slain  
Brave Aliatar: and his train  
Unvanquished still, tho' once o'ercome,—  
Are now returning slowly home.

In sadness marching &amp;c.

How deep oh ! Zayda, is thy woe !  
 And from thine eyes the bright tears flow  
 More freely than the crimson tide  
 When hapless Aïatar died.  
 Say love ! didst thou her grief behold ?  
 Or touched with pity, draw the fold  
 More firmly round those shaded eyes  
 That durst not view her agonies ?  
 In sadness marching &c.

Nor does fair Zayda only weep—  
 Alike are plunged in sorrow deep  
 All those who drink of Genils' tide,  
 Or dwell where Darro's waters glide,  
 The fair bewail a lost gallant—  
 The brave—a warrior passed away—  
 The high in birth a peer lament—  
 The poor regret their friendly stay.

In sadness marching, on they come  
 With trumpet hoarse and muffled drum.

\* \* R — n.

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#### EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN INDIA.

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The subjoined account of the state of education amongst the natives of Bangalore, is written by Ram Raz, native secretary to the *Madras Schoolbook society*, unassisted by any European. It is curious as a specimen of the great ease and purity in the English language, which may be attained by a native of India, as well as for the information it conveys. Ram Raz is the present head English master of the College of Fort St. George ; he is described as a man, whose extensive acquirements in almost all the languages of India and accurate knowledge of English, are the result of indefatigable diligence of many years' duration, bestowed without any prospect of pecuniary remuneration and whose ardent love of literary research has been only restricted by the debility of a constitution much impaired by hard study—(*Asiatic Journal* vol. xxiv. p. 584.) His first employment, in the public service, was that of clerk to the quarter master of a native regiment, from which he was promoted to a clerkship in the office of the military Auditor General at Madras, where an acquaintance with accounts and a very slender knowledge of English would have ensured his success and advancement. After the close of a laborious day in the last mentioned office, he robbed his rest of the hours which he devoted to the cultiva-

tion of English and Indian literature ; the extract which follows exhibits with what success.

" It is generally believed that the state of education in the provinces is much inferior to that which at present obtains at the presidency of Fort St. George. This is confirmed to a certain extent by the information I have been enabled to obtain on the subject, during a residence of some months at Bangalore, and by my own observation of the comparatively low degree of knowledge attained by the generality of the natives, and of the defective mode of instruction, which prevails in the schools in this city, one of the richest and most populous in the country of Mysore.

In this country, education is confined to a very small portion of the people who are considered as the higher class, and except in a few instances, it never reaches beyond instruction in reading and writing, and the simple rules of arithmetic ; and even the few who may be desirous of extending their knowledge farther, necessarily labour under great difficulties from want of competent teachers, suitable books of instruction, and a systematic method of education. The lower orders, the class of labourers, &c., who form the greater part of the population, are lamentably sunk in ignorance, without a single gleam of knowledge to enlighten their minds.

The richer class of merchants, artificers, and shopkeepers usually possess some knowledge in the rudiments of learning, by means of which they are capable of keeping their own accounts and transacting their own business while the poorer class remain totally unacquainted with letters. Among the Brahmans, the Laucicus or the laity, who fill almost the whole of the civil offices in this country, are well versed in reading letters on business, and in the mode of keeping accounts in one, and frequently in two, of the vernacular languages ; and most of the Vaydicas or the clergy unite to a knowledge of reading and writing the ability of reciting a part of their Vedas, a qualification which is considered indispensable necessary to maintain their sacerdotal dignity ; but their learning seldom extends so far as so enable them to understand the import of their scriptures, for it is but one in fifty that possesses a competent knowledge of the Sanscrit language.

In the town, fort, and cantonment of Bangalore, there are seven Telugu, twenty one Canarese, four Mahratta, and three Tamil, in all thirty-five Hindu schools, which contain in the aggregate five hundred and 60 scholars. Of these one hundred scholars are studying Telugu, three hundred Canarese, one hundred Mahratta, and sixty Tamil. These scholars are composed of all sects indiscriminately. The number of learners, compared with the estimated number of boys in this city, would give a proportion of one to five or six; but even of these scarcely one fourth continue in school for a sufficient length of time to acquire a competent knowledge of reading and writing;—the poorer class of people being frequently obliged to take their children from it, and put them to some employment, before they have learned the first principles of education.

There does not exist in Bangalore any regular academy form Sanscrit; but this deficiency is in some measure supplied by a few of the learned Brahmans, who employ their leisure hours in gratuitously instructing a few young Brahmacharis, who are willing to attend them at their convenience, in the Vedas (theology) Cavyas (poems,) Sastras (sciences,) &c.

The masters of the Telugu, Canarese, and Mahratta schools are commonly Brahmans, and generally speaking, their knowledge in the languages which they respectively teach is as limited as that of other ordinary scholars in this country: they can indeed read a book with the greatest fluency, and write a very legible hand, but, they are unable to explain the meaning of any passage in the books from which they instruct their scholars. There are, however, exceptions, and among them I have great satisfaction in noticing particularly two persons, named Achappa and S'rinivasa, both teachers of the Telugu, whose ability and knowledge in the standard works of that language, added to a considerable acquaintance with the Sanscrit, are highly creditable to them, and would do ample justice to the honourable profession which they follow, if they were only to adopt an improved system of education in their schools.

Although the fifth year of the age of a boy is considered as the fittest period for him to commence his scholastic life, yet there are numerous instances in this coun-

try of boys being placed in school, some after the completion of their sixth year, while others do not enter it before they are ten or eleven years old.

On the first entrance of a boy in school, it is customary for him to make a present of a few fanams to the master, and to worship the god of wisdom, whose image is set up in some schools, invoking him to grant him knowledge, and to enable him to surmount every obstacle that may present itself in the course, of his studies,—the master or the town priest, first assisting him in the performance of the usual ceremonies. The scholar then receives from the master a book containing the alphabet written in large characters, and is taught to repeat the several letters three times over, as they are pointed out to him in the book.

This done, a distribution of the offerings made to Ganesa takes place among the boys, and the newly admitted scholar, having duly saluted the image and the master, returns home. On this as well as on every occasion, when a scholar commences a new book or enters upon a new course of study, the whole school generally has a holiday during the afternoon, on which account, the scholar, at whose instance this indulgence is granted, is obliged to make an additional present to the master. If the parent be rich, this initiatory ceremony is often performed with great pomp in the house of the scholar to be admitted, where the master and all his pupils attend for the purpose; and in this case, a very handsome present is made to the master in money, clothes, &c. according to the ability of the donor, and the ceremony is generally concluded by a procession, the child being carried in a palanquin or on horseback, with music and dancing, through the town.

The emolument of a schoolmaster in this country is indeed very inconsiderable; the average monthly sum paid for each of the poorer children is a Cantaray fanam equal to three and three fourths Madras fanams, (about 5d.,) and even this, the schoolmasters complain, is not paid to them regularly: the richer boys pay from two to four cantaray fanams, and sometimes more, according to the circumstances of their parents. In addition to this, in some schools, each boy supplies the master with a small quantity of oil, firewood, betel-nut

&c.,—once in a week or fortnight; and in Navaratri, which occurs in the months of September and October, the schoolmaster assembles all his scholars, and conducts them to their parents and relations respectively, as well as to some respectable persons in the city, and causing the boys to sing hymns &c. in their presence, obtains small presents in money, clothes &c.

The school hours are from six o'clock in the morning to six or seven in the evening, in which time the boys are allowed two or three hours in the morning, and at noon, for taking their meals; and at night they study their lessons at home. The full moon and the new moon, and the first day of the bright and dark fortnights respectively, are allowed as holidays; all study being prohibited on those days, as also on various other festival days in the year.

The youngest scholars first learn the alphabet by tracing with their fingers each letter, which the master or the monitor, (for as such the head boy acts in all the native schools) sets down on sand before them, and by repeating it aloud, until they are able to write it down themselves without the help of a copy. They are then taught the connected forms of vowels and consonants, the numerals, and the multiplication table, by writing them likewise on sand from a copy placed before them and by reading them distinctly. This exercise forms a part of every day's labour, and is repeated for several months, sometimes by each boy separately, and sometimes by all the boys promiscuously, one leading and the rest following him. They also sometimes write on sand, and sometimes verbally repeat the names of the cycle years, the months, the days of the week, the planets, the signs of the zodiac, the constellations &c. &c.; and those who have had sufficient practice in deciphering the characters, are made to write down a few proper names which the master or monitor gives out to each boy individually. And when they are able to do this correctly, they begin to read over and commit to memory some books, receiving every day a fresh lesson of a moderate length, but without having a single word explained to them. The scholars then proceed to work in various schools of arithmetic, which the master gives them written on a piece of cadjan leaf or on a painted board, and to exercise writing on

cadjan leaves, boards, and paper, from the forms set by the master in the upper line of the copy, first forming large characters, and gradually reducing them to a moderate size. In reading, the children are taught individually, without method, order, or discipline; there being neither classes nor promotion, nor degradation in the native schools, to excite a spirit of emulation among the students. Under all these disadvantages, when a boy continues in school, and passes through the foregoing series of study, which generally takes him at least five years, he acquires a proficiency in reading any books or letters with fluency, in writing a good hand, and in the principle rules of arithmetic, and he is then considered as having had a good, though not a liberal education; and is sent out into the world to seek for a livelihood."

Z. 100

### CONVENTION.

(Continued from page 475.)

Nov. 12. Mr. Johnson in continuation.

He said, however that he laid no stress on any examples drawn from the constitutions of the other states, from the comparatively short time they had been in operation, &c. In answer to the remark that one of the objects of the Convention was to change the politics of the state, he asked if the subject under consideration had not intrinsic difficulty enough without connecting it with party politics, and whether it was the wish of the east to think for the west as well as legislate for it.

He denied there was any danger (if the white basis were adopted,) of changing the arrangement of the congressional districts on the federal basis: if however, it was apprehended, it might be prevented by a constitutional provision, which he insisted, they were not prohibited from doing by the constitution of the United States. Nor was it to be apprehended that the right which the southern states have to representation for their slaves would be endangered by the present question, as that right is held by compact, and on compromise; and an amendment to the Constitution was impracticable. The same argument, moreover, had been urged, at the adoption of the Constitution, and was disregarded.

He then showed from a comparison of the increase of population in the east and the west, in the different periods of ten years since 1790, that the time when there would be more whites west

of the Blue Ridge was very uncertain, and inferred farther that the time was not distant when the ratio of increase would be the same in all the districts. Taking the auditor's estimate of the increase since 1829, he stated the probable white population of all the districts in 1850, making the total amount in the west 406,000, and in the east 395,000, and after that period he thought the increase would be the same in both, from a comparison of their areas, and other circumstances.

Supposing the preceding view correct, and that there would be a few slave holding counties in the west, there was no danger that the "white basis," would "carry power into unfriendly hands." On a further reference to the population tables, he showed that the relative increase of slaves was much greater as you proceeded west; and he argued that this would continue to be the case from the increase of the culture of tobacco, and other causes; and referred especially to the counties of Rockbridge and Botetourt, as illustrations.

But admitting he was mistaken, as to the future relative increase of the two divisions of the state, would protection to the slave property he asked, "be afforded by the compound basis." He thought not. For if the east would place reliance on nothing but political power, this circumstance would make that property hateful to them, and tempt them to make "constant war" upon it and to reduce its value so as to induce the holder to part with it. They would also find auxiliaries, even in the east, among those who do not own slaves: to a part of whom the right of suffrage will be extended. The mischiefs were so probable and so serious, that, he said, the right of suffrage cannot be materially extended, if the compound basis was forced upon the west.

But if these evils did not follow, "will the people of the west, he asked, sit down tamely under a privation of the power they now enjoy? Will they be persuaded that the majority cannot be trusted with the power which has been exercised and is still claimed for the minority? He said, it was impossible, and that a constitution so formed could not last ten years. The remedy would be in the hands of the people, and they would employ it; and if the legislature disregarded their petitions and remonstrances, there would be another Convention, and then the surrender of power would come too late to allay animosities, and restore harmony to the Commonwealth.

He then dilated on the advantage of limiting the right of suffrage to those, "who have sufficient evidence of permanent common interest with, and attachment to the community as af-

fording the best security to property and rights. He knew there could be no rule which would include all who had, and exclude all who had not the requisite interest and attachment, but the object would be sufficiently attained by a moderate property qualification. "Such a safeguard, as this, he said, would not array one part of the state against another, nor produce serious discontent." He entered, at some length, into the considerations which should reconcile the excluded classes to the limitation of the right of suffrage; and that there was no danger to be apprehended from those classes, as there was no "bond of sympathy nor union of action" among them.

He said he had inclined at first to fear that if the number of qualified voters were made the basis of representation, it might hereafter induce some districts to seek an extension of the right of suffrage with a view of increasing their power; but on further reflexion, he believed that no such consequence was to be apprehended soon, if an adjustment was then made to the satisfaction of both parties; and that the influence of an extension of the right of suffrage on the distribution of political power, would by the diffusion of slaves over the state, be constantly growing less.

On the subject of the internal improvements desired by the west, he said he was no friend to any system which would rob one man's purse to improve another's land; and that no such improvements should be undertaken but at the expense of the country benefited. But he said that under proper restriction the interests of the country required an improvement of its roads and rivers. And such had been the opinion of Genl. Washington, and the most distinguished members of this convention. He then insisted that every part of the state was interested in the improvements of roads and rivers, the middle and upper country, and the lower country by the improvement of its principal markets; and in some cases he argued the latter would be most benefited, if the expense of all public works were to be repaid by its tolls.

But he said it was apprehended that roads and canals, affording only local benefits, would be made at the public expense. He then inquired if any such local interests was likely to command the power of the state, by a review of the navigable rivers of the state, and the country interested in this improvement, and inferred that no separate interest, and no probable combination of interests would be sufficient to command a majority of votes in the legislature. Besides, if such combinations could be successful, he said the combined basis would afford no security against them. This would unite the whole western vote in their favor, and this vote,

added to a small local interest in the east, would give a majority. He denied that the people of the west would be more likely to engage in expensive undertakings than those of the east, as they would be required to pay in proportion to their ability, and the man of small property submits to imprudent expenditures as unwillingly as the rich man. He added, in answer to the argument drawn from the greater proportion of the taxes being paid by the east, that if both parts of the state contributed equally, it would still be insisted that the west would be induced to lay taxes, of which they were to have the chief benefit—and that the east would then find some other argument against transferring the power to the west, and some new basis of representation would be devised to prevent it.

Mr. Johnson then entered into the history of the James River navigation, for the purpose of vindicating its policy and showing that the measures most objected to in that improvement were carried by eastern votes. He showed that the fears of taxes, for the purposes of educating the poor of the west, were unfounded. He said this was not exclusively a western interest, and that the most expensive schemes of public education had all originated in the west.

But supposing the apprehended dangers existed, he denied that their proper remedy was in giving power to the minority. If it was thought that there was any danger of unjust taxation or of a misapplication of the public revenue for the purpose of public improvement, or for education, the powers of the legislature for these objects might be limited, by requiring a vote of four sevenths, or three fifths, or two thirds; or, what would be yet more effectual, by applying the combined basis to the Senate. He was an advocate for none of these expedients, but he maintained that this was as far as the other side could go, on their own principles. He denied that the Senate would be an insufficient check to the house of Representatives and referred to his own experience. Besides, the constituents of that body would be the very minority whose interests were sought to be protected.

He remarked that the slave property of the east did not require representation to give it influence in the government, as it allowed more leisure and more afforded the means of education than can be enjoyed by the citizens of the west, and he said that almost all the distinguished orators, jurists and statesmen of Virginia have been born and educated in the eastern district; and that these advantages must always give political power.

In answer to the argument that this superior intelligence of the east implies superior virtue,

which presented an additional reason for giving the power to the east, he said, in the first place, it did not follow that superior numbers would always prevail over superior talents, and in the next, that it was not true that virtue was in proportion to talents in political life. He could not allow to the superior intelligence of the east any superiority of virtue; and could never consent to surrender the power of the state into the hands of a minority.

He said that the arguments urged by the people of the east against the possible abuse of power, if given to the west, may be retorted on them as it was admitted the two districts had not an identity of interests, for instance, in the subject of internal improvement. And he stated that the west may be injured by reducing the tax on slaves, and by increasing it on land; and by increasing it on cattle, which he insisted would be more productive in the west than the east, and that there were subjects of taxation peculiar to the west, as salt and other mineral products. Though he did not believe that the power would be abused by the east, yet there was surely as much reason for withholding extraordinary confidence from them when a minority, as the ordinary confidence from the west when a majority.

To the compound basis, he said, he had "insuperable objections." If power was given to the minority, they would have the means of perpetuating it. He referred to the reluctance with which the minority had given up their power in the senate in 1817, although they paid a triple tax for it, to shew the high value set on power; and considering the smallness of the taxes, they might always be willing to pay a double portion of them, to retain the power of the government. He further objected to the principle that property is entitled to representation, as it might be extended so as to be inconsistent with a popular government. He concluded with begging the committee to compare the two propositions submitted to them—"the simplicity, the uniform character and operation of the one, its entire conformity with the principles of our government, with the complex and varying character of the other, its proneness to abuse, and its tendency to discredit the doctrines we have been taught to reverence and respect." And to remember the important difference of their respective consequences to the peace and harmony, the character, and integrity of the state.

Nov. 18 Mr. Stanard addressed the committee. After adverting to the fact that he was chosen by a district in which he did not reside, as giving his constituents a stronger claim to his



exertions and passing encomiums on the temper and sobriety which have generally characterized the debate, he spoke of the claims of the west for their services in the late war, and said they had been often before insisted on, always acknowledged, and more than once required; and he asked if these claims were to endure forever, and whether it was like our obligation to the creator, "a debt immense of endless gratitude—still paying, still to owe?" He said he had full faith in the sincerity of the professions and disclaimers made by the west, but he knew how possible it was for the strongest minds and purest hearts to be deluded in favor of their schemes of public good.

He complained that the question had been regarded as if it were before the primary assemblies of the people in their sovereign character; and as if the numbers represented by a majority of the members here, should prescribe the terms of the constitution, and the minority have no voice. This he denied to be correct, and said if it were, the qualities required of the members were not prudence and knowledge and virtue, but merely "the capacity to add, subtract, and strike a balance." This was totally inconsistent with the course the people had pursued, in choosing the patriarchs of the land, and with the proceedings of the convention itself. "Those patriarchs, he said, are to stand before the people as instructors, and not as the passive instruments of a foregone decree."

He said the argument which had been most frequently used on the other side, was the *argument of epithets*, which has always a potent one, in all political themes," as that the basis for which the east contended was, anti-republican aristocratical and oligarchical. He first noticed the proposition imputed to Judge Upsher, that there were "no principles in government," when that gentleman rose and disclaimed having uttered the opinion. Mr. Stanard then spoke at length on the various principles of government, according to the character of the people and the circumstances of the country, and that they all ought to be respected—"no one to have a despotic sway, and to hush into silence all the rest." The other side, however, he said, would give to a single principle this overruling sway, which he compared to the operation of the chemist, who extracts from the materials of wholesome aliment a single ingredient, which thus separated maddens the brain, without nourishing the body.

He reminded the gentleman from Brooke, who would set out with certain *a priori* principles, that there were no postulates and axioms in mo-

ral or political science that would lead him to certain truth, as in mathematics. Thus he asked if any one would resort to *a priori* principles if he were now to make a constitution for England, and give a free and equal representative government to that country; and suppose he decided to get rid of king, nobles, clergy &c., would he give to every man an equal portion of political power? "Equal numbers he said, had not always equal value," and larger masses of population united in a common interest, and directed by one will, could not have as much power as the same population when divided and dispersed: without destroying the very political equality that was aimed at. He thought we should rather imitate the policy of Massachusetts in limiting the number of representatives from Boston whatever may be its population or wealth. From the same considerations, he said, he would not give to the city of New York the weight its numbers might entitle it to.

He then went into the consideration of the principle "that all men are by nature free," and urged that the moment he who insists on it tries to put it in practice, "the case categorical became a case hypothetical," as that all men are by nature possessed of equal rights, ergo, all men in society should have equal portions of political power, if they are not *women*; if they are not *under twenty one*, if they are not *paupers*; not *insane* &c.—which limitations had been conceded by the most thorough going supporters of this new patent for republicanism." As he advances his case categorical becomes more hypothetical. The reports of the legislative committee has *ifs* in abundance; as *if* the voter owns land; *if* it is so many acres; *if* he has paid taxes, &c. and thus before he gets to work, he will have stricken from the numbers of the people two thirds of the whole." He admitted the propriety of these exclusions, but said "why make *your* opinions the standard?" He trusted then that this argument would be disarmed of the reproach that our present government, was "anti republican and oligarchical."

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#### TRANSLATION.

To make a good translation is neither so easy as the generality of bookmakers seem to think, nor so useless as some philological pedants have pronounced it to be; nor is the occupation of a translator so contemptible as under the hands of so many unqualified scribblers, it threatens to become in the eyes of the public. Translations are chiefly made for the use of those who

have neither time nor opportunity to make themselves acquainted with foreign languages. We desire that by reading a translation we should derive as much profit or pleasure as we should have done, had we understood and read the original. The first duty, therefore, of a translator is to transmit faithfully and completely the leading ideas of his original; as these are the most important to him, who by the study of an author, wishes either to correct and increase his former acquirements, or in a general manner cultivate and improve his mental faculties. For this purpose the translator must possess, not merely a perfect knowledge of the language in which he writes and of that from which he translates, but he must also be familiar with the subject matter of his author, whose peculiar manner of thought and expression he must copy with fidelity and truth. Words and sentences, expressing in the original, besides the principal, also collateral ideas, must in the translation be rendered by such as will, in the mind of the reader, awaken the same association of images. The words, however, of an author, ever so faithfully rendered, will often not merely be insufficient to express his meaning, but will entirely change it; the same word, the same phrase, the same position of words and phrases, especially when they are to affect the feelings, may in different languages make an entirely different impression on the reader. And even should the genius of both languages, with regard to a particular expression, be the same, it may still, if literally translated, distort, or render but faintly, the sense of the original. For it may happen that the thing signified is now changed, or that its relations and circumstances are no longer the same, or that now other ideas are associated with it than were at the time when the author wrote, or that allusions, which formerly gave it strength, brilliancy and life, are now weak, colorless, and without interest. In such a case, the translator, if he have an accurate knowledge of the genius of both languages, a sound judgment and a matured taste, will not fail to find a substitute, which being equivalent to the expression in the original, shall produce the same effect, and epithets alone, in works of poetry and eloquence, may exercise the ingenuity of a translator, whose chief attention ought to be directed to those, which by association

of ideas, vividly retrace in the mind the image of the object in question, as well as those which manifest the peculiar spirit of the author. All those epithets, that are characteristic and only serve as embellishments lay less constraint on him; these he may, without any disadvantage to his translation, sometimes change and sometimes omit. If the translation from a good work does not read well, it is a sure sign that it is a bad performance in itself, for besides its want of beauty, it does not represent, at least as far as diction is concerned, the spirit of the author which we admire in the original. To do justice in this respect the translator with a practised ear and a refined taste, must have at his command all the copiousness and all the niceties of language, to select from among a number of expressions those which, in the given combination, are the most beautiful, appropriate and happy. A serious reflexion on the indispensable requisites for making a good translation might, if not augment the number of good authors, at least sensibly diminish that of bad translations.

B.

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#### OBSERVATORIES.

The public were lately informed by a Boston Journal that an observatory was erecting at that place, (perhaps it might have said, "being erected,") and it was remarked that this would be the first building of the kind in the United States. We have indeed been culpably remiss in providing this indispensable requisite to the successful cultivation of the useful and dignified science of astronomy, but our reproach has not been quite so great as the above remark conveys, since there was an observatory in Philadelphia in the time of Rittenhouse, who we know made a most profitable use of it; there has been another very recently, if we mistake not, at Columbia college in South Carolina; and we have been for some short time provided with one at this University. The latter, though, a small building, is well constructed for its purpose; and we flatter ourselves that, it will afford the means of astronomical observations, at once curious and useful.

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## THE SIAMESE TWINS.

We cannot but regard this very singular sport of nature as the most interesting to philosophy of any which have ever come within our knowledge; and we greatly regret that, while every thing relating to the physical part of the phenomenon should have been so minutely scanned and so accurately reported, that which relates to its nobler part, the mind, should have been so utterly neglected, both in this country, and as far as we have yet seen, in England.

Never was so fair an opportunity presented for throwing light on, and perhaps settling, some controverted questions in mental philosophy, because there never was such an occasion of subjecting them to the test of experiment. Thus the disciples of Helvetius maintain that genius, as well as virtue, is the creature of education; that any one, having all his senses in the ordinary state of perfection, is capable of being moulded to any character, intellectual or moral; and that the diversity we see in the powers and dispositions of men may be ascribed to minute early influences, and unequal exercises of their several faculties, before regular and ordinary instruction begins.

To elucidate this question and such as have affinity to it, we here have two individuals who were born at the same time, have, throughout their subsequent lives, been placed in circumstances almost precisely the same. They have breathed the same air; partaken of the same food; witnessed the same scenes; conversed with the same persons; waked and slept—eaten and fasted—taken exercise and rest at the same time, and in the same portions. Their means of knowledge may then be considered to be more equal than ever hap-

pened before to any twins, however similarly educated and fondly attached to each other. As, too, they appear to have enjoyed good health, and may be supposed to have experienced the same treatment, their pleasures and pains may also be presumed to have been the same, both in character and degree.

If then, on a careful and judicious course of examination, there should appear to be a decided difference in their mental powers or propensities, it would seem sufficient to refute those who deny that men are born with minds of a different character. Should, however, no difference be discovered, the converse of the proposition would not be established, because it might happen that the resemblance which we often see so perfect in the outward forms of twins, may here exist as to their minds from the beginning; and in the case last mentioned, therefore, the inquiry would be unsatisfactory. We apprehend however, that many points of difference would have been perceived between them, especially as some slight diversities have been already noticed; and we must repeat our regret that the fact was not determined by actual experiment.

We use the term *experiment*, because their mental faculties and more simple emotions might be subjected to the closest and most accurate comparison. Thus *their memories* might have been compared by putting the same questions separately to each, and by imposing on the memory of each the same exercises. Their *associations*, both as to their *liveliness, variety* and *peculiar kind*, may be compared by the mention of the same interesting objects separately to each; such as their native country—the ocean—the ship that brought them here—America—London—

their protector, &c. In these cases it is impossible that the same trains of thought, excited in their separate minds, would be precisely the same, and the comparison, being made in numerous cases, may show the characteristic difference of their minds. In like manner, their answers to questions exercising their *reasoning faculties*, and their powers of *generalizing*, may be compared in the same way, as well as their proneness to resentment, gratitude, jealousy, and other emotions. It is scarcely necessary to add that, in these experiments, the questions put to each, as well as the answers given by each, should be without the knowledge of the other; and that as each would be *liable* to the peculiar influence of some bodily feeling—some sensible object—or some train of thought—when giving his answers, the experiment should be repeated frequently and at different times, so as to make these disturbing forces evanescent in the general average.

These brothers afford perhaps a still better occasion of giving support or contradiction to the Phrenological Hypothesis; for after making an accurate comparison of their mental powers and propensities, in the way proposed, it may be seen whether in those qualities in which they agree, they both have the appropriate protuberances, to the same extent; and in those in which they differ, whether they have correspondent differences in the outward form of their heads. The common resource of Gall and his followers, where the exterior of a skull does not respond, on their principles, to the qualities its owner is known to possess, is, that the natural propensity has had extraordinary development by education, (where the quality exists, and its outward sign, the protuberance, is wanting,) or has not been sufficiently developed, where the protuberance exists, and the quality is wanting. But that resource will not avail them in this case, where "the developments," made by education and circumstances, have been precisely the same with the two individuals compared. Should, therefore, these boys be found to have similar propensities and dispositions with different phrenological indications, or different propensities with the same outward signs, the result will go far to overturn the ingenious fabric which science, real or pretended, has built up on a small basis of facts.

The affectionate disposition which these brothers shew towards one another, and their amiable deportment generally, are what might have been inferred *a priori* from the principles of sound theory, according to which, every faculty, passion, or propensity, whether it be regarded as the effect of original organization or of subsequent circumstances, acquires strength from exercise.

The consciousness that these boys must have had, from the moment they could perceive any thing, that their natural comfort depended on a mutual spirit of accommodation, and the constant habit of conferring and receiving kindness, have kept their sympathetic and benevolent feelings in continual play, almost every hour of their lives. And should their acts of self denial and of kindness to each other be referred to love of self, in the first instance, yet after frequent repetition, what was regarded as a means is afterwards sought as an end, and each seeks the comfort of the other for its own sake. Besides, the habit of mutual accommodation would receive a new impulse from the subsequent conviction that no serious injury could happen to one without affecting the other, and that their safety and well being were inseparably linked together. This state of things would naturally render them obliging, docile and complying to all, and as to each other, make them exhibit, probably, the most perfect model of affection and friendship which the world has ever seen, between persons of the same sex.

The future history of these twins will continue to be one of great interest; and we confess that we regard it with solicitude as well as curiosity. In case of the sickness of one, or of both, the effects would be most inconvenient and distressing. It remains too to be seen whether that consentaneousness of mind, cemented as it is by habit, may continue to exist in manhood, and whether new wants and new passions which time may develop, may not be too strong for the sympathy which has hitherto given them, as it were, one mind and one soul. It is the opinion of an eminent surgeon in London, (Sir Astley Cooper,) that though these boys have all their vital functions distinct, it would be hazardous to separate them, on account of the shock that would be given to the nervous system. This seems probable

enough, as it respects their minds alone, if the separation were by death, or otherwise involuntary, but it might, we presume, make a great difference, if the separation should be made in pursuance of their own vehement desire. We cannot but hope that, before their union is dissolved in any manner, they will fall into hands at once competent and willing to give to their immaterial nature that investigation, which the interests of mental science seem to require and invite. Q.

### AMERICANISMS.

"Words are the people's but there is a choice of them to be made."

BEN JONSON'S *Discourses*.

### REPUTED AMERICANISMS.

(Continued from page 499.)

**Mad.** "Angry, vexed." This is an old English meaning of the word, but is now nearly, if not wholly, obsolete amongst good writers. It is so used in holy writ. At present it is often heard in England colloquially, particularly in the Provinces. The old English verb "to mad" to make furious, to enrage is also heard in many parts of this country: but is not, so far as we know, in use in any part of England. In Ireland "mad," in the first sense, is universally prevalent.

**Mought.** for *might*. This antient preterite, often heard with us, is common in many of the English counties. It is excellent old English, although obsolete. Our word "may" was once *mowe*—a good Saxon radicle, constantly employed by Chaucer,—and from *mowe* came the preterite *mought*:

"Yet mould with death then chastise, though he mought.—FAIRFAX.

**Perk.** "Lively, brisk." This old English word, now obsolete amongst writers and very restricted in its use in the Provinces, is said to be used in the interior of *New England*, but commonly pronounced as *pear*: (the *e* as in *pear*.) In the southern states the connate word *pert* is employed in the same sense, pronounced as *pear* (the *e* as in *be*.) There is the most important difference between the phrases, "a *pert* child" and "a

*peeart* child." The former expressing "sauciness, petulance," the latter "life and animation."

**Poke.** "A bag." On this word Mr. Pickering remarks, that in England, he presumes, it is never used, except in the old proverb, which is familiar to every body in both countries. He is mistaken. There is not a more common provincialism in the northern counties of England.

"She suddenly unties the *poke*

Which out of it sent such a *smoke*."

DEAYTON.

**Poked**, in Yorkshire, in rural economy, signifies "consumptive"—sheep, subject to this disease, having generally a *poke* or bag under the jaw.

**Polk**, in the same sense, is old Scottish.

**Poorly.** "Indifferent in health." This word is used colloquially more or less over all England: *very poorly* is likewise employed for very unwell. Pegge has given it as a northern provincialism. It is by no means confined to that region.

**Profanity.** "Profaneness." This word in common use in this country is not English,—so far as regards the written tongue. It is at times used colloquially. It is not, however, of American formation: but has been often employed by Scottish writers.

**To Purchase.** We hear this word employed technically by mechanics both in this country and in England, in the sense of "a firm hold." As "get a good purchase"—"get a good hold."—We have even known the splitting of a pump ascribed to the "sun's having had such a *purchase* upon it." It is an extension of the old English meaning of the word, still in use, which means "Obtained at any expence as of labour or danger."

**To Quackle.** "To almost choke or suffocate." This is another importation from the east of England—Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex &c. It is not known in other parts. Chaucer uses the word "Quack" for an inarticulate noise, occasioned by obstruction in the throat.

**Quarrel.** "A pane of glass." This was probably, at one period, a good

word. It was certainly employed for the instrument with which a square or pane of glass is cut. It is from the French *carre* or *quarre*, square: and was at one time applied to an arrow with a square head.

"Twang'd the string, out flew the quarrel long—FAIRFAX.

In the same sense in which it is employed in New England it is in use in the West of England.

**Rafty.** "Rancid, damp, musty." Another word imported from the east of England.

**Realize.** On this word Mr. Pickering has the following comment.

"The clergy of New England (says a friend) employ this word, when a thing is spoken of as made certain or substantial: a sense not frequent among the modern English. A learned clerical friend has reminded me that it is used in this manner by Alison, the well known Scottish author." The word is universal in England in this very sense, and has been, so as far we know, ever since its introduction from the French.

**Reckon.** "To suppose, to conjecture to conclude." See *guess*. Used in the above senses in the North of England. "I reckon he'll come." "I reckon I shall."—(Brockett and Grose.)

**To Rile or Roil** "To render turbid, to vex." This term which is much in use in New England, is equally common in the northern counties of England.

**Roily.** "Turbid."

**Rungs.** Common in New England as applied to the steps of a ladder. Pickering has the following remark. "Grose mentions it as a provincial word of the North of England: and Ash also gives it as 'a local word.' The braces or rounds of common chairs are also vulgarly called *Rungs*. This has generally been considered as a mere corruption of *rounds*: and people of education use only this latter word."

This is but sorry etymology. If the "people of education" had extended their researches in the proper direction they would have found that rungs is a very antient word. The term is in the *Moes*.

Goth,"—*Hrugg*, supposed to have been pronounced *hrung*, "a rod or staff," whence were "obtained the Islandic *Raung*, and the French *varangues* the ribs of a ship.

The word in the antient as well as modern Scottish has various significations. It means. 1. any long piece of wood, but most commonly a coarse, heavy staff; as in the Scotch proverb. "I'll take a *rung* and rizele your rigging with it." 2. It is used, metaphorically, in relation to the influence of poverty.

"An as for poortish, girmen carline!

Aft hae I borne her wickit snarlin,

An felt her *rung*.

Rev. J. Nicot.

3. It is used for a spoke: and a wheel with spokes is called a *rungwheel*, in contradistinction to one with cogs, or a cogwheel. (*Jamieson*) In most of the Scottish senses and particularly in the one in which it is met with in New England, it is universal in the northern counties of England.

**To sag.** "To sink or settle." This, perhaps a corruption of *swag*, was at one time in use, but is now obsolete, except in the eastern counties of England, whence it has been probably imported.

**See for saw.** *New England*. Mr. Pickering has admitted this word, but it is a pure vulgarism to be met with almost every where.

**See'd for saw,** and for seen, is likewise a common corruption arising from the propensity to make all irregular verbs regular.

**Shote.** "A young hog." We noticed this word before. We may add that it has been imported also from the east of England, whence we have derived so many provincialisms.

**To slam.** "To push violently"—as "he *slamm'd*-to the door."

This word is, we think, very generally accepted in this sense in England. It is stated to be provincial in the north, and Brockett has admitted it into his glossary; but it is common over all the country, and might be employed in composition with propriety.

To *slat*. "To throw down with violence, to dash against." This has been received from the northern counties of England:—It is a corruption from *slatter* which also is in constant use there.

*Slice*. "A fire shovel"—*New England*. This is a *West-of-Englandism*—although it is not contained in the glossary of Mr. Jennings. Pegge has it in his "Supplement to Grose," and refers it to Bristol.

*See page 577. R.D. W.F.*

### CONTEMPORARY FAME.

*Tam ficti pravique tenax, quam nuncia veri :*

VIR.

Now bent on wicked fictions, and now the messenger of truth.

It must be confessed that if we are likely to mistake the characters of the individuals whom we know only through the medium of history, we are also apt to misapprehend those of our contemporaries. The want of sufficient materials wherewith to form our judgments misleads us in one case, and too much feeling in the other. Partiality or dislike have so strong a bias in our estimate of those who live in the same times with ourselves, that it may be well doubted whether we are not led into greater errors by prejudice than by ignorance.

No man who was conspicuous in his own times was ever without his friends and flatterers, his enemies and revilers; and while the first will exaggerate his virtues and palliate his faults, the latter will do just the reverse; and thus, by opposite means, they both seriously concur in the same result of hiding the truth from the world. It may be thought perhaps that these opposing misrepresentations counterbalance each other, and that public opinion, aware of such prevalent influences, commonly takes the middle ground between flattery and malignity, and thus probably arrives at the truth. In some cases, no doubt, this really happens, but in many others these contrary and irreconcilable accounts have no other effect than to confound our ideas of the character intended to be exhibited, and

to make us adopt in the mass one representation and reject the other; or render us sceptical of the whole testimony which so requires us to credit the existence of unassociable qualities and inconsistent facts.

It is said that Lavater was once presented with a fictitious profile containing the forehead of one person, the nose of another, and the mouth of a third, for the purpose of passing a judgment on the character of the supposed original, and that the physiognomist immediately perceived the incongruity and detected the fraud. But the *moral* eye cannot boast of the same power of discrimination. He who is prudent at one time may be indiscreet at another; the man who is habitually niggardly or selfish, may have been sometimes compassionate and generous; and no one is, at all times, and in all situations, the same. Besides, a character may be drawn with qualities which were never yet found united. It may be exhibited as tremblingly alive to the emotions of gratitude, but insensible to those of resentment; with a lively sensibility to pleasure, but none at all to privation or pain, and the unnatural and impossible alliance will not, by the generality of mankind, be perceived.

The impressions produced by a handsome person, a graceful or dignified air, by a cheerful temper, or insinuating address, are always mingled with the opinions we form of the moral or intellectual qualities of our acquaintance; and, by a natural association, the pleasure occasioned by their personal accomplishments enhances our estimate of their talents and virtues. Where, on the contrary, the manners or person displease us, an additional portion of merit is commonly required to produce equal effect. Peculiarities of manner are also apt to deceive; *gravity*, for example, as implying extraordinary depth of thought; *singularity* as implying originality and independence of mind; and *vehemence*, as implying a thorough conviction of the truth and importance of what it advances.

The adventitious circumstances of rank

or fortune produce a similar deception. Who does not recollect some time of his early life, when, in the weakness of his reason and the liveliness of his feelings, he has perceived sense and wit only because he saw manifestations of wealth or power? And in this respect a large part of mankind are children all their lives. Such circumstances as these influence contemporaries in their estimate of intellectual excellence or moral wealth; they transmit their opinions to posterity, and error, thus obtaining a general currency, is finally consecrated by time.

The comparative rank, which Dr. Johnson and Goldsmith held in the estimation of their contemporaries, seems to afford a striking illustration of such deceptive influences. These eminent men, it is known, not only lived at the same period and in the same city, but were associates in the same circle. The superior readiness of Johnson in conversation, with his authoritative and dogmatical manner, impressed their mutual friends with the belief that he was greatly the other's superior in intellect, which opinion received confirmation from the yielding, and often submissive behaviour of Goldsmith himself. And yet if we are to judge of them by what would seem to be the surest test of the merit of authors—their respective productions, Goldsmith possessed a higher order of genius than Johnson. As a poet, the author of the "Traveller" and the "Deserted Village" must rank far above the imitator of Juvenal. There are few, I presume, who would not rather have written the Vicar of Wakefield than Rasselas, or even the Lives of the Poets. The "Good Natured Man" and "She Stoops to Conquer" every body has read or seen acted, and may see or hear again with undiminished pleasure, while the merits of "Irene" most people have yet to learn. In one single species of composition, essays on life and manners, Johnson has the advantage, and yet the "Rambler," though superior to the "Citizen of the World," is not so much superior, as it is different; the latter exhibiting more invention, and treating the lighter follies

of mankind with more ease and nature, and consequently with greater effect.

If this parallel be just, it follows that posterity must reverse the sentence which was pronounced on the relative merit of these individuals by their contemporaries, and unhesitatingly place Goldsmith highest in the scale of intellectual merit.

But the false estimates of contemporaries are not always so easily detected. Where the merit of an individual consists chiefly in action, there is no touchstone by which after times can try the justness of public opinion. Statesmen, generals, and I may add, those orators whose effusions have had no other depositary than the unfaithful ear, must be regarded by posterity according to the representations given of them by those who drew from the life; and whose pictures are always more or less influenced by the false colourings that have been mentioned. The attempt therefore of Horace Walpole to shew that Richard the Third had not either the deformities of person or of mind which have been generally ascribed to him, was not so absurd as it may at first appear; and a more dispassionate age than the present may possibly prove that Robespierre was less ferocious and unprincipled—less callous to human suffering than we now believe him to be.

It does indeed happen with a few individuals that their words and actions, by reason of their extraordinary celebrity, are so narrowly watched and so minutely reported, that a mass of evidence is furnished from which the public may form a correct judgment of their characters. But this correct judgment can be formed only by posterity, when the feelings of admiration or disgust, of favor or ill will that they excited during their lives, have ceased to exist. In this way the character of General Washington may be now justly appreciated, as may at no distant period that of Napoleon, whom even the English Tories\* already begin to admit to

\*See Blackwood's Magazine for June 1829. Page 735.



be the greatest man of his age. But as to those who have been less conspicuous, if they should not be hidden from the view of posterity by the shades of oblivion, they must expect to appear in those false hues with which both the good and the evil passions of men never fail to exhibit their contemporaries.

### OMICRON.

#### ETYMOLOGICAL HISTORY, No. 2.

(Continued from page 517.)

Quelques diversités d'herbes qu'il y ayt, tout s'enveloppe sous le nom de salade. De mesme sous la consideration des noms, ie m'en vay faire icy une galimafree de divers articles.

*Essais de Montaigne* Liv. i. Chay. 46.

#### ECCLESIASTICAL TITLES.

Again, if we look to the titles of the ecclesiastical establishment, etymology points out to us their almost exclusively Romanic origin, indicating, if we had no other evidence, the early supremacy of the Roman Catholic Church. The *bishop* and the *archbishop* e. g. are originally from the Greek but reached all the Teutonic nations immediately from the Latin *Episcopus*—as the similarity between them will testify—*Eng.* Bishop, *Dan.* Biscop—*Belg.* Bischoep.—The *dean*, from the Lat. decanus, a word introduced into the church from the camp, but reaching us, probably, immediately from the French *doyen*. The prebend, from the barbarous Latin *præbenda*—a kind of allowance of food and other necessities afforded to the clergy. The *parson*—*persona*—the person by whom the church is represented. The *vicar* “*quasi vice fungente rectorum*” and the *curate*, “*quia curam animarum habet*”—the *priest*, originally from the Greek, Πρεσβυτερος, a senior or senator, Lat. *presbyter*, Fr. *prebtre*, *prestre*; *pretre*—and lastly, the *sexton* or *sacristan*.

**Military titles.** These are so clearly from the French, whence our knowledge of *Strategy* has been obtained, as to require no comment—those of *General*, *Col.*, *Major*, *Captain*, *Lieutenant*, *Ensign*, *Sergeant*, *Corporal*, *Private* &c.

having been taken from that language without much alteration.

**Naval titles.** The etymology of naval titles is not so evident. Our knowledge of maritime affairs has been borrowed from various nations and consequently the appellations are as various in their origin. *Admiral* has been a stumbling block to philologists—some believing it to be Arabic, from *al*—article, and *Emir* a lord or prince, others that it is *Belgic* from *Aen*—*meer*—*al* “on the whole sea” (*Minshen*); and the latter idea is certainly as probable as the former. Most of the inferior titles down to the *Boatswain* are clearly French, as *Captain*, *Lieutenant* &c.—the *Boatswain* is Danish, and means, literally a *boat-boy* and *coxswain*—the *cock-boat-boy*.

**Legal titles.** In the law, again, although most of the terms are clearly of Norman origin, there are some which set at defiance the most reckless etymologist. Who, for instance, would divine the meaning or intention of the *Court of Arches* unless he were previously told, that this chief and most ancient consistory court was so named from the church in London, commonly called St. Mary-le-bow or Bow church (*de Arcubus*), where the court was formerly held; the building itself having been named bow church from the steeple, which is raised by pillars, built archwise, like so many bent bows. *Exchequer*, we had from the Normans, but whence it originated we know not—Skinner supposes from the Germ. *Schatz*, treasure, but this is too remote. Camden asserts that it took its name from the cloth of the table at which the judges sat being party coloured or chequered, but he gives no authority. Of excise we know little more, although it may be from the Belg. *accis*, tribute, and we know that many Belgians came over at the time of the conquest;—but our object is not to enter, at this time into the etymological history of offices; space will only admit of a few remarks on titles and denominations.

The etymology of *chancellor* is not clear; he is considered to have been so

called because he sate *intra cancellos*, in an inclosed or separated place or channel, encompassed with bars to defend the judges &c. from the press of the public. Whatever, may have been its derivation we certainly had it from the Normans. The same may be said of the *Judges—puise* and others—as well as of the *lawyer* and *Counsellor*, whilst the *barraster* or *barrister* is a creation of more modern date, from the word *bar* in its legal acceptation, and we know not what else. The *attorney* is equally Gallic—from the words *attour* or *adtour* in the place of another—as well as the *notary*, *prothonothary* &c.

*Jury* claims also a Norman parentage, although the trial by jury, in some modification, was in existence long before the time of William the Conqueror. Submitting a case to the decision of impartial men is an expedient, which would early suggest itself, and trial by jury was certainly used by the Anglo Saxons.\* This is one of the cases, consequently, where the duty was continued but the name changed. The *bailiff* is Norman, from the old French *bail*, a keeper or guardian and hence the etymology of the *bail* for a violator of the peace—the *gailor* is Norman, though originally from an old Keltic word *geol*, a prison, whilst the *coroner*, a title of antient date is from the Latin, but when the appellation was introduced, i.e. whether before or after the conquest we know not; he is evidently so called from being chiefly engaged with pleas of the crown or those in which the commonwealth is more immediately concerned. *Tipstaff* and other appellations of the same kind have arisen from some of the paraphernalia of office: the *tipstaff* is an officer appointed to attend upon the judges with a kind of rod or staff tipped with silver.

*Medical titles.* The profession of *medicine* furnishes us with but few elucidations of our subject. The term *physician* is comparatively of recent date having

been first applied to the professors of the healing art about the time of Charlemagne, and having been so appropriated because medicine consists especially in the contemplation of nature. From the French the appellation was received into the English language, yet it is singular that although it was used in France as lately as the time of Rabelais, Chartier and others\* it is now obsolete; and the word *medecin* has usurped its place.

The *surgeon*, too, though originally Greek, probably reached us along with the improved art from France. *Leach* is the Old English term for the practitioner of medicine.

In the origin of *trades*, etymology, again, throws light on history. The *carpenter*, *cordwainer*, *currier*, *cutler*, *draper*, *druggist*, *farrier*, *funder*, *furrier*, *joiner*, *plasterer*, *mercier*, *plumber*, *poulterer*, *vintner* are unquestionably French. The *haberdasher* has been a subject of etymological strife, but it ought to be considered as undecided as ever.

Pegge thinks it may be—*Fevre d'Acier*—needle maker, but this is a distinct calling, Minshew fancifully esteems it to be from the Teut. "*habt ihr das*?"—Have you that?—a frequent question from purchasers or from the French—"*avoir d'acheter*." *Butcher*, too, has been considered, by some to be derived from the French *bouche*, as he is the caterer for that organ; but its etymology is uncertain. The Saxons, being herdsmen, it is not improbable that they were butchers also, and delivered the meat into the hands of their Norman conquerors. Certain it is, that the names of the animals, when living, are Saxon, whilst, when dead, they are Norman; e.g. ox, cow, bull, sheep, calf &c. are Saxon—beef, mutton, veal &c. are Norman, though, in the time of Beaumont and Fletcher, and still, in many parts of this continent, we find beef, mutton, and veal applied to the living animals.

In the time of the Anglo Saxons the trades and arts were few: foreign com-

\* Turner's history of the Anglo Saxons. Vol. ii. 511.

\* "Les physiciens m'ont tue  
"De ces brouillis qu'ils m'ont fait boire."

merce was inconsiderable; luxury was uncommon, and people were contented with what the earth produced. Tradesmen were, consequently, but little needed and are spoken of as poor and humble men, and mostly in a servile state. The clergy, the rich and the great, had domestic servants, who were qualified to supply them with those articles of trade and manufacture, which were in common use. Hence, in monasteries, were smiths, carpenters, millers, architects, agriculturists, fishermen &c., and Bede describes a monk as well skilled in smith-craft.\* The smith—*Iernsmith*—was one of their most important trades, as being required in agriculture. They had also the *Goldsmith* and the *Seolfersmith* or silversmith and the *Arssmith* or coppersmith. The salter, baker, cook, dyer, pewterer, saddler, weaver, wheelright, scavenger &c., were distinct callings, and although the *carpenter* is French, the Anglo Saxons had the *Treow-wyrhta*—the tree or wood wright, who is said to have made various vessels and houses and ships. The shoemaker (*Seowwyrhta*) seems also to have had a comprehensive trade and to have carried on very distinct businesses.

\* See Museum p. 55.

## CAOUTCHOUC BALLOONS.

MESSRS. EDITORS,

I heard with pleasure of the successful experiments of Dr. Mitchell of Philadelphia in making bladders of the caoutchouc, or India rubber, so light that when inflated with hydrogen, they became real balloons; and having seen in the newspapers that one of these pretty playthings of science, sent up from Philadelphia, had been seen soon afterwards on a tree near Baltimore, it occurred to me that they may possibly be made subservient to inquiries in meteorology. I would therefore ask whether they may not be used to measure the velocity of the wind in a hurricane; to shew the force and direction of the regular currents of the atmosphere, as in the trade winds, the monsoons &c. and to assist in determining the problem, whether the west wind is more prevalent than the east in

temperate latitudes, and if so, to what extent?

As these balloons would be buoyant according to their size, supposing the thickness of the gum to be the same, they may be made to ascend to different heights, and perhaps may afford *data* to compare the higher with the lower currents of the atmosphere. These inquiries are suggested merely by way of example; and there may be many other ways in which such cheap little aerial messengers may contribute to throw light on a branch of science where light is greatly wanted. It is true, that a large proportion of these balloons may never be heard of after they are sent off, even although they should meet with no accident, but the trouble and expense of sending off several at once would not be considerable.

The advantage of these balloons is, that in a greater degree than any other hitherto used, they unite lightness with strength, and thus they can be made smaller and cheaper than any other. In this age of discovery and improvement, when the achievements of one age exceed even the imaginations of that which preceded it, we should regard no new fact, or new application of a fact, as unimportant. It is therefore that these hints are thrown out for consideration by one who, in physical science, is but

AN AMATEUR.

## CONVENTION.

(Continued from page 523.)

After Mr. Randolph had concluded his speech, (on Saturday Nov. 14,) the question was taken on Judge Green's amendment to the report of the committee, and decided in the negative by a single vote—forty-eight to forty-seven. On which Mr. Scott moved another amendment the object of which was to base representation in the House of Delegates on *white population*, and in the Senate on *taxation*, after which the committee rose, and the Convention adjourned.

Monday Nov. 16. Mr. Scott having withdrawn his amendment, Mr. Leigh offered one, by which representation in the House of Delegates should be based on the *federal number*, which he said he offered because it had been objected that the mixed basis proposed by Judge Green, enabled

the east to keep the power of the state always in their own hands, by subjecting themselves to the chief burden of taxation; and that this objection might have induced some members to vote against the mixed basis. The federal number too he said was recommended to his mind by the facility and certainty with which it can be carried into practice.

Mr. Nicholas said he could not conceive "a more awful state of any country" than that it should be about to change its fundamental law by a majority of one or two votes. So menre a majority, he said, made up too in part of members east of the Blue Ridge, shews the sense of the country on the question. He earnestly deprecated so radical a change, when half the country pronounced it to be unwise.

He said he had been opposed to the call of a convention, not because he thought the present constitution *theoretically* perfect, but because he thought it *practically* good. He asked what had become of the governments established by Lycurgus and Solon and of all the ancient republics. "They have disappeared, and have been succeeded by the most frightful despotism." He was not however opposed to reform, where practical evil was clearly proved to exist. He said he had been an officer of the government for twenty years, during which time he solemnly averred he knew no instance of oppression or injury caused by the government.

He said he had always been in favor of the *federal number*; that it had been first adopted because it was the proper basis of representation, and not as a *compromise*. The mixed basis, he said, must always be fluctuating in its character, and inconvenient in practice; while the other is easily ascertained, and is fixed. Besides, as it operates uniformly, it will give the west the ascendancy when the slave population beyond the mountain has increased, according to its alleged tendency.

He remarked that he had no desire for any change that would prove unpalatable to the people. He wished to conciliate; and would wish Virginia to remain united, but that there were some things better than union. Oppression was worse than division. He was however in favor of compromise, if the east could have effectual security; and he reserved to himself the right of seeing the *whole* security offered,

before he gave his vote in favor of any system.

Mr. Monroe then addressed the committee. After referring to his age, his reluctance to come to the Convention, and his disposition to look to the interests of the whole commonwealth, he said that he thought it would be wise to base representation on the white population, in the House of Delegates, and "to place a check" on that house in the senate. The first he considered to correspond with the present constitution and the Bill of Rights, which he warmly eulogised. In organizing the senate he would vote for the "mixed basis," but he preferred the "federal number" for several reasons.

One of these measures, he said, (the white basis in the House of Delegates) would "tranquillize the people," and he hoped its friends would assent to the other, (some compound basis in the senate.) He asked for what other objects men entered into society, except for the protection of life, liberty and property? In the civilized state, "man presses on man—society on society, and each individual must have something of his own or he starves." Property must be protected, and that protection, he said, was not incompatible with the adoption of the white basis in one house.

He was in favor of extending the right of suffrage. It would convey "tranquillity into the body of the community." He said our situation was very different from that of the ancient republics, where the people originated nothing: whilst here they have the government in their hands, and the property of the country rests on them alone, and the highest officers of the state are all their servants.

Mr. Tazewell said that according to all his experience no good could result from the discussion of mere general propositions, with a view to agree on a basis, for some *unknown* practical scheme. For such schemes must at last be brought to the test of utility; and then if they should be thought impracticable, they would be rejected though in accordance with the agreed basis; he therefore had not intended to engage in the present discussion, until the subject should have received some more definite form, but as it had proceeded so far, it might now save time to proceed with it a little farther.

To determine what is a proper basis of representation for Virginia, he said, we may aptly inquire what is the present basis. When the excellence of the present Constitution has been admitted by all, we ought carefully to examine its fundamental principles before we seek to change it. He said the basis of representation was established two hundred years ago. "Representation itself had undergone many changes," but its foundation had remained the same. He then gave a history of the House of Burgesses from 1620, shewing that the members were first elected by the different settlements in the colony, which were separated from each other by wide water courses, or thick forests; and having a separate, as well as a common interest. The basis of representation was then the *interests* of the different plantations, each peculiar interest being represented whether it concerned many persons or a few, or "involved much or little wealth." That when the settlements became united, though each plantation was no longer represented, the principle of representing separate interests was still preserved—the first eight shires or counties being very different in numbers and taxable property. To this principle is to be traced the creation of new counties; and likewise the representation allowed to James Town, Norfolk, Williamsburg, and the college of William and Mary, which could have been entitled to it upon no other principle.

He said that when the present constitution was formed, the convention continued the representation as they found it, except in the case of James Town, and William and Mary college, the reasons in their favor no longer existing, and the new legislature had the same right of dividing counties and creating new corporations, whenever the general, or a peculiar interest, required it. This basis was just at that time and would have continued so, but for the provision that each county should send two representatives—it not being foreseen that an existing county or corporation may cease to have a peculiar interest. The consequence of this provision is, that the legislature cannot remedy the gross inequality of the counties, without the still greater mischief of making the legislative body too numerous. And this inequality of counties he considered the principal grievance complained of, not that one part of

the state has more weight than another, and that this was the evil they were sent here to remedy.

He regarded this as no difficult task. A mere provision that the legislature may unite any of the electoral districts, "in which no peculiar interest is believed to exist," to other contiguous districts, would be sufficient. He said that instead of this, to make a *tabula rasa* of the commonwealth, and to make new divisions, without regard to any thing but numbers, he believed had never been thought of before this Convention met. He said he would unite in consolidating small counties, and dividing large ones; but he could never regard numbers *exclusively*, or property or any thing else, *exclusively*. He then cited the case of the eastern shore of Virginia as an illustration. It is peculiarly exposed to danger in war, and can have no hope of aid from other quarters. It had always defended itself by its *own means*. They had also peculiar pursuits, habits &c. and he asked whether any wise statesman, with a full knowledge of their circumstances, would allow no representative to such a society, merely because their numbers or wealth did not reach that precise standard he had fixed.

He next referred to the county of Warwick, containing but about six hundred inhabitants, and said that supposing that the river which runs through it, precipitated itself over such a cataract as that of Niagara, that circumstance might be sufficient to convert its inhabitants into a body of manufacturers; and that their interests would require a separate representation. He thought therefore that "in the allotment of representation," regard should be had, rather to the interests and convenience of the people, than to their actual numbers, wealth or territory." He then insisted on the inconsistency of those who maintained that no other basis than one of numbers was according to republican principles, and yet admitted that the present government of Virginia is the best the world has ever seen. He said too, that gentlemen after asserting, that according to an eternal rule of right the majority must govern, exclude seven eights from that majority. They exclude all but free white persons, and thus "make the rules of reason and justice depend," upon the accidental colour of the skin.

And, he asked to what standard we were to refer to determine who were white, whether it would include the Chinese, the natives of the Greek Islands, the Moors &c.

While he readily admitted that people of colour, whether bond or free, should not possess political power, he could not see why only the free white population should be regarded in determining the basis of such power. Domestic slaves, he said, may be excluded, on the ground of their being merely property, but he saw no reason why the unmixed descendant of a Kong merchant or a native of Mexico, migrating hither, should not be counted as well as women, minors and aliens from Europe.

He said that "capital and labour are the two great elements" of national prosperity; each is necessary to the other, but yet there has been and always must be a struggle between them; that it is the business of government to reconcile "these jarring elements, to confine each to its proper sphere," and to prevent the mischief arising from either having too much influence; that they can no more be separated and society be preserved than the soul be separated from the body, and existence preserved, and all that the wisest statesman can accomplish is to resolve the opposing forces into a third, which, when deriving its power from both capital and labor, will be the support of both." But he maintained that such a government could not be contracted by placing two houses of the legislature on different bases; for as they would both be chosen by the same electors, they could not check each other. The senate, he said, consisting of twenty-four members, could never long prevail against the more numerous branch, and, he asked what security it could afford to property against the attack of numbers. And if a higher property qualification were required of the electors of the senate, he said the cry of oligarchy, aristocracy, &c., would bring down on it so much popular odium that it could afford no security.

He said that in every society there were individuals who, from the love of notoriety or popularity, will neglect their own interests, and consequently those of their constituents, such as the Duke of Orleans in the French Revolution, and that in the conflict between persons and property, numbers would often choose such individuals as senators. An Almighty hand,

he said, may part Dives and Lazarus but the statesman cannot. His efforts therefore should be to resolve and to combine their forces—so to mingle them that you could not distinguish the voice of one from the other, and this could be done, only by arranging representation according to interests and convenience. He further illustrated the same proposition, by shewing that the interests of some parts of the country were, by their position, necessarily and exclusively commercial, others agricultural, and others manufacturing, and consequently that each ought to be represented.

He also pointed out on the map three great divisions of the lower country of Virginia, in which were the tobacco-planting, the cotton-planting, and the grain-growing interests, which he said were as distinct as those of agriculture, commerce and manufactures. All these regions were intersected by wide watercourses. These circumstances should of course be regarded in allowing them representation, and when they were consulted, and not until then, numbers may be resorted to, to measure the different interests. But not to white numbers exclusively, but that the same course should be pursued as was done in 1816. He then went into a history of the act for re-arranging the senatorial districts to show that the representation was not based on white population exclusively, but was the result of several bases combined, and that the people of the west were then satisfied, their insufficient representation in the senate alone, being their only grievance. He added that he hoped to see the same good result from reforming the representation in the senate now, which he had seen thirteen years ago.

He said he would take George Mason's constitution and the map of Virginia, and draw a line which would meet the concurrence of all, unless this were to be regarded as a question of mere power. In that case, it could not be surrendered without degradation. "We are entitled to power, said he, but we are willing to part with it, if it is asked in the way we wish." He said he was willing to meet gentlemen on the ground of compromise; but if it was expected that they were to give all until the people of the west were satisfied, he would at once put down his foot and give nothing. He would give up any part of the constitu-

tion where practical mischief had resulted, or probably would result. But he "was not sent there to pull down the fabric to the foundation stone." On the question of power, he said there was but one forum for the settlement of that question, and referred to the answer made by the Spartans to a demand, accompanied by a threat, "to come and take it," Mr. T. added, "He came, but he did not take it."

Mr. Doddridge averred that the senatorial bill of 1817 was based on the white population according to the preceding census. The west having 212,000, of 551,000, they were of course entitled to nine members and a fraction. He added that before the west got their quota (the law requiring several annual elections to give them the whole number) it had 48,000 unrepresented.

He also denied that the west had its full proportion in the House of Delegates, they being entitled to seventy-eight members at that time, while they had but sixty-eight, or that the west were satisfied with the senatorial law. He said that the inequality in the House of Delegates had increased since 1817, it now being entitled to one hundred members, instead of eighty out of two hundred and fourteen.

Mr. Johnson rose to correct some misrepresentations of his arguments by Mr. Tazewell and others, and to say that he should have no objection to making the "qualified voters" the basis in both branches of the legislature; and he should not much regret the federal basis for the senate.

Mr. Mercer corroborated the statement of Mr. Doddridge concerning the senate bill in 1817. He considered the supposed different agricultural interests mentioned by Mr. Tazewell to be "as fluctuating as any that could be selected. And he said that the counties had been *formed* and divided for *judicial*, not for *legislative* objects.

Mr. Cooke impugned the "theory" of Mr. Tazewell that the representation of Virginia had been one of *interests*, and said that instead of "conforming his theory to the facts, he had made his facts conform to the theory." He then undertook to shew, by a reference to the history of Virginia, and its early laws, that at first the *free inhabitants* were the basis of representation. He denied that the creation of *counties* in 1634 had any connection with

representation until 1645, and said it was not until 1661, that the counties, as such, were represented; and that then it was to avoid the expense of too great a number of burgesses. This representation he said, having this origin, was adopted in 1776, from considerations of prudence, so that in fact, there had been nothing deserving the name of a *principle* of representation since 1621, and we are now called upon to declare what that principle ought to be. The gentleman of Norfolk said *interests*, the bill of rights, said *the people*.

Mr. Leigh made some remarks in support of the views which Mr. Tazewell had taken, to which Mr. Cooke replied, when the question being taken on his amendment it was lost, ayes forty-seven, noes forty-nine.

Nov. 16. The two parties on this question of the basis of representation appearing to be so nearly balanced, after a discussion of three weeks, and the result being therefore unsatisfactory to the one which prevailed, the further discussion of the subject seemed, by general consent, suspended for a time, and the committee of the whole proceeded to the consideration of other parts of the report of the legislative committee.

In the sketch we have given of this protracted debate, we have aimed to present to our readers, in a very condensed form, the substance of the arguments, and we have used the language of the several speakers, wherever it was recommended by its brevity, or force, or by its being characteristic. But we are satisfied that, with the compression which the narrow limits of our journal made indispensable, it was impossible to do justice to all the ingenious and impressive views which were urged by both parties on this trying question: but we consider that enough has been reported to enable the reader to estimate the comparative merit of the opposite sides, though he should not be able to graduate that of their individual advocates.

This debate having occupied so large a portion of our journal, we shall content ourselves hereafter, in our report of the proceedings of the Convention, with consolidating the arguments of the several speakers on the several questions discussed, as a plan more likely to be agreeable to the generality of our readers, and quite

as favorable to a full understanding and correct opinion of the points controverted.

To give a more unbroken view of the debate, we have forborne to notice any other part of the proceedings of the Convention. We shall therefore now take a review of what seems most worthy of mention. On the sixth inst. Mr. Townes of Pittsylvania offered a resolution which was referred to the committee of the whole, and which proposed, that in all propositions for laying taxes, or making loans, and in all appropriations, the number of votes allotted to each of the great districts of the state, in both houses of the legislature, should be in proportion to the amount of revenue collected in such district.

On the same day a letter was received from the Presbyterian synod of Virginia, containing an unanimous resolution of that body, expressive of their satisfaction that the Convention was about to preserve and perpetuate *liberty of conscience*, as declared in the Bill of Rights, and developed in the act establishing religious freedom. The Convention having gone into committee of the whole, after the address of Mr. Fitzhugh, when the question was about to be put, Genl. Taylor rose, and stated that when he was elected to the convention, his sentiments were publicly declared and well known to his constituents, but that on the question before the committee, no opinion was then formed, either by himself or them—that he thought the amendment then under discussion, (Judge Green's,) "inconsistent with our free institutions," and tending to the introduction of oligarchy—and that if it had been rejected, he had intended to offer, to substitute "qualified voters without regard to disparity of fortune" for *white population*, as more consonant with principle, and that the public should fully understand the subject in debate. But that he had recently learnt that there was now a decided opinion, in his district—he believed a large majority—in favor of the amendment, and that he had received instructions from a part of them on the subject. He said that he had always regarded representation as merely the means of expressing the opinions of the constituents, and that no act of his "should ever impair that principle, but that there were limits to obedience," and he could not, to obey them, violate his conscience, and his obligations to his country. He there-

fore asked a postponement of the question, until he could *resign his seat*, and another delegate he appointed in his room, so that his constituents may not be unrepresented on the question, and he himself be saved from the necessity of acting either against their will, or his own conscience.

He remarked that he came here prepared to promote the interests of Virginia—those general interests being of more importance to any district than its own peculiar and temporary concerns. He then gave a detailed view of the effect of the amendment in his district, and shewed that Norfolk borough would be entitled to a larger representation than Norfolk county, the latter having double the population, and that there would be a correspondent difference in the other counties of the district. He then moved for the committee to rise, but Mr. Moore expressing a wish to address the committee, the motion was withdrawn.

On the following day, Nov. 7. The president laid before the convention a letter from Gen. Taylor, resigning his seat as a member, and assigning the same reasons for so doing as in his address to the committee yesterday. This letter, as well as the General's address, excited considerable interest, and while the friends of the white basis greatly regretted the loss of his talents and zeal to their cause, his elevated and disinterested course recommended him warmly to their regard, and could not but command the respect even of his opponents.

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#### PARIS ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

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The election of a member, to supply the vacancy of the Count Daru, took place recently when General Rogniat was chosen. His competitors were M. M. Allent, Busche, Costas, Desgenettes, Lamandé, the Duc de Rivoli, Seguier Junior and the Marquess Fortia.

When Baron Larrey was chosen to supply the place vacant by the death of M. Pelletan, his competitors were Messrs Roux, Breschet, Lisfranc, Cloquet and Edwards.

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#### NEW UNIVERSITY IN NEW YORK.

A new University is proposed in New York on the plan of the University of London. It is intended to comprise instruction in every department of knowledge



except theology. When the plan is entirely matured and put in execution we shall advert to it again. *MD*

## UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

The prognostications we ventured to make, regarding the future salubrity of this university, from the result of all experience in similar cases, have, we are happy to say, been confirmed to an extent which we could hardly have anticipated. Although there are in the university more students this session than there have ever been, with the exception of one session—their general health has been extraordinarily good, and the freedom from fever greater than at any previous period. There has not been a solitary case of continued fever in the university since the endemico-epidemic of last year. The whole of the region of the south western mountains is, indeed, preeminently salubrious, and the consternation excited at the appearance of spreading fever in the institution, during the last year, is merely an exception which must be regarded as a proof of the fact. *MD*

## STATISTICS.

To enable the distant reader the better to understand the different local interests of Virginia in representation and taxation, so often adverted to in the debates of the Convention, he is presented with the following table made by a member of the Convention, and lately published in the Richmond Enquirer.

*West of the Alleghany*

	Whites.	Slaves.	Taxes.
Brooke	6,759	218	1,529
Cabell	4,772	495	934
Grayson	7,407	415	739
Greenbrier	7,838	1,408	2,214
Giles	4,437	403	617
Harrison	12,048	503	1,639
Kanawha	7,590	1,527	1,935
Lee	4,909	475	740
Lewis	5,490	142	637
Logan	3,303	155	295
Mason	5,693	595	1,092
Monroe	6,997	593	1,475
Monongalia	14,215	335	1,772
Montgomery	10,318	1,836	2,151
Nicholas	3,630	96	303
Ohio	15,588	274	3,438
Pocahontas	2,618	248	521
Prepton	4,902	117	587
Randolph	4,372	234	614
Russell	6,041	879	876

Scott	5,169	335	743
Tazewell	4,811	628	960
Tyler	3,947	103	587
Washington	12,689	2,388	8,493
Wood	5,444	693	1,044
Wythe	10,137	2,093	2,713
	181,384	17,178	33,770

*Between the Alleghany and Blue Ridge.*

	Whites.	Slaves.	Taxes.
Alleghany	2,252	597	633
Augusta	16,138	4,225	7,802
Bath	2,204	1,062	1,184
Berkeley	7,910	1,762	3,886
Botetourt	10,842	4,106	4,373
Frederick	17,904	6,954	11,011
Hardy	5,807	963	2,669
Hampshire	9,961	1,277	2,802
Jackson	10,357	4,258	5,776
Morgan	2,498	154	582
Pendleton	5,723	460	858
Rockingham	10,240	1,973	5,776
Rockbridge	10,985	3,486	3,911
Shenandoah	15,511	2,257	5,692
	138,132	33,533	56,962

*Between the Blue Ridge and the head of tide water.*

	Whites.	Slaves.	Taxes.
Albemarle	9,659	11,519	9,224
Amelia	3,097	7,138	3,957
Amherst	4,866	5,603	4,030
Bedford	12,067	9,062	5,606
Brunswick	3,264	9,772	4,893
Buckingham	7,142	10,399	6,645
Campbell	10,302	9,751	9,771
Charlotte	5,574	9,225	5,713
Culpeper	11,106	9,225	6,588
Cumberland	4,091	7,109	4,206
Dinwiddie	5,568	6,724	4,389
Fluvanna	3,839	3,550	2,791
Fauquier	13,226	11,301	8,317
Franklin	9,864	4,708	2,952
Georgetown	3,616	8,302	4,315
Halifax	9,355	11,276	8,144
Henry	4,284	2,807	1,710
Loudoun	12,990	5,490	19,507
Louisa	6,634	8,951	5,120
Lunenburg	3,844	6,696	3,405
Madison	3,812	4,730	2,799
Mecklenburg	7,815	11,416	6,487
Nelson	4,955	5,996	3,674
Nottoway	2,436	6,600	3,572
Orange	6,907	7,865	4,903
Patrick	4,867	1,566	1,065
Pittsylvania	11,021	10,263	6,778
Powhatan	2,998	5,568	3,366
Prince Edward	4,912	8,659	5,032
	197,222	221,332	150,265

*Below the head of tide water.*

	Whites.	Slaves.	Taxes.
Accomack	9,453	4,040	4,413
Charles City	1,659	2,503	1,865

Caroline	7,605	11,198	6,185
Chesterfield	8,853	10,402	6,964
Essex	4,221	6,284	3,294
Elizabeth City	2,200	1,585	1,681
Fairfax	5,431	3,437	3,944
Greensville	2,182	4,561	2,544
Gloucester	4,133	5,363	3,041
Hanover	6,481	8,775	5,694
Henrico	4,781	5,527	21,013
Isle of Wight	4,243	4,521	2,861
James City	800	1,708	885
King George	2,198	3,995	2,234
King and Queen	6,121	5,952	3,271
King William	3,380	5,980	3,300
Lancaster	2,316	2,792	1,439
Mathews	4,120	3,425	1,691
Middlesex	1,916	2,057	1,052
Nansemond	5,013	4,361	3,469
Norfolk	9,059	5,833	5,528
New Kent	1,246	3,391	1,898
Northumberland	4,558	3,215	1,882
Northampton	2,603	3,091	2,604
Princess Anne	5,382	3,949	2,399
Prince George	2,687	4,383	2,754
Prince William	5,286	3,554	3,436
Richmond	3,034	3,022	1,663
Southampton	6,205	6,822	4,209
Spottsylvania	6,495	8,116	6,574
Surry	2,277	3,307	2,027
Sussex	4,212	7,482	3,734
Stafford	4,459	3,724	3,015
Warwick	688	1,043	520
Westmoreland	3,065	3,474	2,171
York	1,247	2,197	1,183
Norfolk Borough	4,618	3,261	9,645
Petersburg	3,997	2,428	7,482
Richmond City	6,445	4,387	
Williamsburg.	448	814	648
	165,523	176,251	144,430

## RECAPITULATION.

	Whites.	Slaves.	Taxes.
West of the Alleghany.	181,384	17,178	21,770
Between the Blue Ridge and Alleghany.	138,132	33,533	56,969
Between the Blue Ridge and head of tide water.	197,222	221,322	150,265
Below the head of tide water.	165,523	176,251	144,432

§

## NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. &amp;c.

## ERRATA.

It is not our practice, as our readers may have but too often observed, to notice errors of the press, because a large proportion will be corrected by the intelligent reader, and when they are not, the correction will seldom be heeded afterwards. But at the instance of the author of the *Morisco* ballad, published in our thirty second number, we notice the following errors in his well

written stanzas, and the remarks which preceded them.

For "maternal feeling," read *natural feeling*.

"gathering emblem," "glittering emblem"

"*Mobril*," "*Motril*."

The author also used the *Italian passatempo* instead of the Spanish *passatempo*.

It is certainly very desirable that every thing should be printed as it was written; but this cannot be done without fairer manuscripts, a more careful revision, and above all, more skill and intelligence in compositors, than are to be found in our country, where the supply of labour is yet inferior to the demand. But the mischief is very imperfectly remedied by a list of "errata;" and we have been often amused to see in a newspaper the correction of former errors, which no one—certainly not one in a hundred—refers back to the original to understand. It happens, too, now and then that the author loses rather than gains by the correction. Of this we will give our correspondent an instance. Some time ago there appeared in the *Richmond Enquirer* a long disquisition, the object of which was to show that the condition of our slaves was better than that of the peasantry of Europe, and in which the author had used the phrase "he eats his *palaulum*." This new term passed with us, as we presume it did with most readers, for the name of some African dish which the writer had met with in the diligence of his researches; but he lost all the credit he had thus acquired when, in the next paper, upon casting a glance at a long column of "errata," the very first which attracted our notice was, for "eats his *palaulum*," read, "eats his *pabulum*."

Since which time we have been more indifferent than ever to corrections of the press, convinced that in this, as in every other concern of life, Fortune has great sway, and that she often makes use of printers devils, when

*Ludum insolentem ludere pertinax*

*Transmutat incertos honores—*

It was no doubt under the influence of this propensity of her's to *transmute honors*, that in the etymological article of our last number, the compositor, for *Field Marshal*, that he had chanced never to have heard of, put *Judge Marshall*, of whom he had heard a great deal.

§

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AND

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"POSCENTES VARIO MULTUM DIVERSA PALATO."—Hor. Lib. ii. Ep. 2.

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### AMERICANISMS.

"Words are the people's but there is a choice of them to be made."

BEN JONSON'S *Discoveries*.

#### REPUTED AMERICANISMS.

(Continued from page 533.)

*Slim*. "Ordinary, mean." This word is occasionally used in some of the northern counties of England in the New England sense: generally as in Lancashire it means "sly, cunning." *Tim Bobbin*.

*Slosh* or *Slush*, *New England*. This is probably a corruption from *sludge*, "mire, dirt mixed with water" probably from the same Saxon root as *slough*. In Lancashire it is *slutch*.

To *slump*, "To slip or fall into a wet or dirty place"—*New England*. This word may have been received either from the east or north of England, for it is provincial in both parts.

*Some*. "Somewhat, something"—as "it snows some" "He is some better," &c.—*New England*. This is, likewise, met with in the northern provinces of England, and is frequent in Scotland.

*Spile*. "A peg or pin to stop a hole in a cask." *New England*. This word is often used for a *spigot*. In England *spill* is used in the first sense, as in the example quoted by Johnson from Mortimer.

"Have near the bunghole a little venthole, stopped with a *spile*."

MORTIMER.

In the sense of a stake or small shiver of wood the Scotch use *spyle* probably.

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bly from Suio-Gothic *spiaele*, a thin lath of wood.

*Sprigh* or *Spry*. "nimble, brisk, quick in action." *New England*. A west-of-Englandism in the latter spelling. *Jennings*.

*Spunk*. "Mettle, spirit, vivacity, used figuratively for life." In the north of England, this is considered a good and very expressive word, notwithstanding that Mr. Todd, in his edition of Johnson's Dictionary, has called it "a low and contemptible expression." Mr. Todd, we think, has been particularly squeamish in this case, whilst he has inserted several words to which the epithet might, with much more propriety, have been applied. *Spunk*, in English, means touchwood, from whence it has been used in Scotland for "a small fire" and thus we can readily understand how it may have received its present figurative acceptance. In the same sense, in which it is employed in this country, it prevails over all Scotland.

"He shewed muckle mair *spunk* too, than I thought had been in him. I thought he wad hae sent cauld iron through the vagabond." *Antiquary*.

In the Gaelic, *spone* means touchwood.

*Spunky* in the North of England and Scotland is used adjectively for "one that is mettle some, active;" and sometimes in the latter country substantively for "one of an irritable temper."

"I did na think your lordship was sic a *spunkie* &c."

Sir A. Wylie.

To *squale*. "To throw a stick with violence in a horizontal direction near

the surface of the ground." *New England*. This is a provincialism of the west of England, where, however, it generally signifies "to throw a stick at a cock or other bird." *Cocksquailing* is a barbarous sport, which consists in tying a cock to a stake, and throwing a stick in the above manner at him so as to kill. The game prevailed at one period to a great extent in different parts of England and has not yet disappeared.

To *squirm*. "To move about like an eel." *New England*. Another importation from the East of England.

To *squat*. "To squeeze or press." As he "has squat his finger." Todd has "to squat"—"to bruise or make flat by letting fall." It is used only in a few of the southern and western counties. In the west of England *squat* is employed as a substantive in the sense of "a bruise, by some blow or compression."

*Steil* or *steal*. "A handle"—*New England*. This word is so used in the south, east and north of England. In Scotland, too, it is common. "*Steils* of a plough," from Teut. *steel* with the same signification.

*Stived* or *stived up*. *New England*. "Almost suffocated." A provincialism of the north of England. It is merely an extension in the meaning of the old word "*to stive*"—to "stuff up close." A word of the same original as *stew*.

*Stock*. "Cattle in general." This is universal over the United States. It is provincial in the North of England.

*Suant*. "Even, regular," as "sow the seed suant"—*New England*. The word *suent* (*Jennings*) and *zuant* (*Grose*) are provincial in the West of England. "Zow the zeed Zuant." (*Somersetshire*.)

To *swale* or *sweal*. "To waste or blaze away." *New England*. This is a good old English word, from Anglo-Saxon, *Swealan*, "to kindle and to burn." It is now chiefly used in the North of England. A *sweal* signifies "a blaze."

*Sweep*. "A long pole turning on a fulcrum, used in raising water out of a

well." *New England*. In Yorkshire *swocep* or *swoape* means "a lever"—in Northumberland, a long oar used in working a coal keel in the Tyne is so termed. It is not unfrequently used in this sense.

To *swap* or *swap*. "To exchange." This is said to be a low word in America. It is, however, in use in England, Ireland and Scotland. *Swap* or *swop* are used by our oldest writers.

Thus J. Hall,

"Thy works purchase thee more  
Than they can *swappe* their heritages for."

And Dryden

—————"I would have swopp'd  
Youth for old age."

It is of uncertain derivation.

To and again. "Backwards and forwards." *New England*. This is sometimes used in the northern counties of England. Pegge says it is heard in Yorkshire and Derbyshire.

*Vendue*. Auction. *New England*. This word, of French extraction, is employed in the British West India Islands. It is unknown we believe in Great Britain.

*Whap*. "A heavy blow or fall." *New England*. This is a vulgar expression over the whole of England. "I fell down with such a *whap*." To *whap* is likewise used for "to beat with heavy blows"—and *whapper* is in general use for "any thing uncommonly large—a thumper." It is more prevalent in the northern counties of England than in any other. In many instances, as has been observed by Dr. Willan, our ancestors seem to have estimated weights and magnitudes by the strength of their blows. Thus they employed, in gradation, the terms *slapper*, *smacker*, *banger*, *thumper*, *thwacker*, *swinger*, and *rattler*. The word *bumper*, concerning which so much has been said and surmised, the doctor thinks, and with great probability, is not entitled to a more exalted origin.

*Went for gone*. This is an unaccuracy which every one, desirous of being thought to know *any thing* of his own

language, ought to avoid. We hear it, however, from very respectable individuals particularly in certain parts of the country. But it is not indigenous. The uneducated use it every where, and it is, for this reason, a common grammatical inaccuracy into which children fall. It is offensively common in London. We hear "he did not ought to have went," frequently there.

To wilt. "To wither." This word is heard in the southern and western counties of England, as "the rose is wilted."

End of *Provincialisms* which are *Reputed Americanisms*. *RCB* *W.H.*

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ESSAYS ON AMERICAN SILK BY MESSRS.  
DUPONCEAU AND D'HOMERGUE  
(Continued from page 548.)

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The following are the several directions given by Mr. D'Homergue to American planters and farmers for the *raising of silk worms*.

### 1. *Of the eggs of silk worms.*

The eggs of silk worms exactly resemble in their appearance and colour the seeds of the poppy. Hence those seeds are sometimes sold in Europe by dishonest men as silk worms' eggs, or mixed with them. But it is easy to detect the fraud, and at the same time to separate the good or live eggs from the bad ones. The eggs must be washed in pure water; all that are good will go to the bottom, and the bad ones will swim. This separation ought to be made by every one who purchases worms' eggs. It is also necessary to keep them clean, and free them by washing from them a kind of gum which adheres to them. Those who purchase or receive from others the eggs of silk worms, will do well always to observe this direction, although the eggs may have been washed by those who raised them, as many of them may have perished by dampness, excessive heat, or want of care.

After the eggs have been washed, they must be dried by exposure to cool and dry air. As the eggs are produced in the month of July, which is a hot month, they must be kept in some cool place until the proper season for hatching them, which is

in May. No degree of cold can hurt them, provided they do not freeze. If they are purchased or received in the hot season, they must not be dried in the sun after being washed, but in the cool of the morning or evening, when the air is perfectly dry and the dew is not falling. The manner of preserving them will be mentioned hereafter.

### 2. *Of hatching the eggs.*

The general rule in Europe is to put the worms' eggs to hatch as soon as the mulberry trees begin to bud. The tree here spoken of is the *Italian white mulberry*, (the proper food of silk worms,) which should be every where extensively planted. It buds generally about the 11th. of May. Ten days afterwards, say about the 21st. they put forth their leaves. These ten days are employed in France in hatching the eggs, by exposing them to a heat which is graduated by means of stoves and thermometers. But in this country nature seems to have done every thing, and I can see as yet no need of recurring to art. The worms' eggs may then here be put to hatch when the *leaves* of the mulberry begin or are ready to appear. I think in this country this happens about the 21st. of May, when the sun passes from *Taurus* into *Gemini*. If, however, by some change in the temperature, the mulberry trees should put forth their leaves later than usual, the time of hatching should be delayed proportionally. But I am inclined to think that but seldom happens in this country.

The manner of putting the eggs to hatch is as follows. They should be put in a pasteboard or wooden box, not covered at the top, and the sides not more than half an inch high, so that the worms, when hatched, may easily crawl out, as will be presently mentioned. The size of the box should be suited to the quantity of eggs to be hatched, so that they be not on the top of one another; but they may touch each other. The box then should be covered with paper, perforated with holes of the size of a large pin's head, so that the worms when hatched may easily pass through them. I have found that the worms in this country, as far as my experience goes, are generally hatched in three days after being put into the box. When they are near coming out, young mulberry leaves should be put on the top of the box,

leaving spaces. The worms, as soon as hatched, will smell those leaves, crawl up to them through the holes in the paper cover, and begin feeding. Then the leaves, covered with worms, are gently taken up and laid on the table or hurdle that has been prepared to receive them.

The eggs should be put to hatch in a warm place. The heat should be at least eighty degrees Fahrenheit. When I arrived in this city, on the 19th. of May, the thermometer was 82½ degrees within doors. It is therefore probable that about the same period it does not often fall below 80 degrees, particularly in the south. The European writers have taken great pains to graduate the heat during ten days which are employed in those countries for hatching worms' eggs. All these precautions do not appear necessary in this country.

### 3. *Of the rearing of silk worms.*

In Europe the silk worms, after they are hatched, are generally laid, with the leaves on which they are feeding, on wicker hurdles, in order, as it is thought, the more easily to keep them clean. I think they may as well be laid on clean pine tables, and may in that manner also be kept clean, as I shall presently show.

During the first day after the worms are hatched, the room in which they are, should be kept in the same degree of heat; but afterwards, as the heat and the strength of the insect increase together, the room should be cooled from time to time, by letting in a draught of air. In general, the windows should be now and then opened to let in the dry air from the north and north west. Dampness is fatal to the silk worm, and should be constantly guarded against.

Cleanliness is also of the greatest importance; when it is wished to clean the table on which the worms are, it is only necessary to place close to it another table on which are put mulberry leaves; the worms will immediately crawl and leave the other table empty, which may then be cleaned. This is necessary to be done the oftener as they increase in size, as they then make more ordure. In the beginning it should not be done until after their first moulting. They generally moult or shed their skin four times. During the moulting which lasts twenty-four hours, they lie torpid, and do not feed. They should then be left quiet.

Care should be taken that the worms do not lie on each other, as it prevents them from feeding. When they do, they should be separated. They should have as much space as possible; the more they are at their ease the better they thrive.

Nothing is more prejudicial to the silk worm than to be fed with damp leaves. A quantity of dry leaves should therefore always be kept in reserve, in case of rain. Wet leaves must be dried in the hot sun. The leaves should not be gathered until the sun has absorbed all the dew.

The quantity of food to be given to the worms must be calculated according to their ages. In the first days they should not be overfed.

If plucking the leaves to feed the worms the buds should not be touched, nor the branches of the tree broken. Nothing but leaves should be gathered. The mulberry puts forth three times in each season; if the branches are broken or the buds plucked off, the tree suffers considerably, and does not produce so much. All the leaves should not be plucked off, but some left on the tree.

### 4. *Of the rising of the silk worm.*

When the silk worms are ready to make their cocoons, which in this country, generally, is on the 31st. day after they have been hatched, a kind of artificial hedge, not above one foot high, must be prepared, by means of some brushwood without any leaves, which is to be fixed along the wall, behind the table on which the worms are. They crawl of themselves in this hedge, which is called *rising*, and there make their cocoons. This brushwood must not be fixed straight up along the wall, but should be inclined above and below, in the form of a semicircle towards the table on which it is to rest, because the worms always move in a circular direction; and also in order that, if they should fall, they may not fall on the table or floor, but on some part of the artificial hedge, whence they may crawl up and carry on their work.

It is easy to know when the worms are ready to rise. They crawl on the leaves without eating them; they rear their heads, as if in search of something to climb on, their rings draw in, the skin of their necks becomes wrinkled, and their body becomes like soft dough. Their colour also changes to a pale yellow. When these signs

appear, the table should be cleaned, and the hedge prepared to receive them.

From the moment that the cocoons begin to rise they cease to eat; they must not be touched, nor their cocoons, until they are picked off, as will be presently mentioned.

#### 5. *Of picking off the cocoons.*

The worms generally form their cocoons in three days after their rising; but they are not perfect until the sixth day, when they may be picked off from the hedge. In Europe this is not done until the eighth day, nor should it be done sooner in this country, if during the six days there have been violent thunderstorms, by which the labours of the moth are generally interrupted. The cocoons must be taken down gently, and great care taken not to press hard on them; because, if in the least flattened, they fall into the class of imperfect cocoons, and are greatly lessened in value.

In picking the cocoons from the hedge, the floss or tow with which they are covered must be delicately taken off, always taking care not to press too hard on the cocoons.

After the cocoons are thus taken down, some are preserved for eggs and others kept for sale.

I shall speak of them successively.

#### 6. *Of cocoons kept for eggs.*

In order that the farmer may judge of the quantity of cocoons that it will be proper or advisable for him to put aside and preserve for eggs, it is right that he should be told that fourteen ounces of cocoons will produce one ounce of eggs, and one ounce of eggs will produce a quintal of cocoons.

In selecting the cocoons to be kept for eggs, it is recommended to select the white ones in preference, and keep the coloured ones for sale; attention should be paid to having an equal number of males and females, and they are generally known by the following signs; the male cocoons, that is to say those which contain the male insects, are in general smaller than the female, they are somewhat depressed in the middle, as it were with a ring; they are sharp at one end and sometimes at both, and hard at both ends; the female cocoons, on the contrary, are larger than the

male, round and full, little or not at all depressed in the middle, and not pointed at either end. They may easily be discerned by a little habit.

It is particularly recommended to take off all the floss or tow from these cocoons, so that the moth may find no difficulty in coming out.

After the cocoons have been taken down from the hedge, those which are intended for eggs should be laid, but not crowded, on tables, that is to say, the males on one table and the females on another, that they may not copulate too soon, and before they have discharged a viscid humour, of a yellow reddish colour, which prevents their fecundity. They discharge this humour in one hour after coming out of the cocoon, which is generally ten days after these have been taken down from the hedge; but this may be accelerated by heat.

At the expiration of one hour after the moths have come out of their cocoons, the males and females may be put together on tables or on the floor; the tables or floor ought to be previously covered with linen or cloth, on which, after copulation, the females lay their eggs. One female moth or butterfly generally lays five hundred eggs; the male and female remain six hours together, during which time they copulate; after which they separate, and the female is forty-eight or fifty hours laying eggs; but the greatest quantity during the first forty hours.

From the moment the moths have come out of their cocoons until the females have laid all their eggs, the room must be kept entirely dark; the light debilitates them and makes them produce but few eggs, and the worms that come from them are weak and puny.

When the female moths have done laying eggs all the insects must be taken away, and may be given as food to the fowls. The eggs must remain on the cloth where they have been deposited during fifteen or twenty days, until they shall have become of an ash or slate colour, when they are perfectly ripe, and may be considered as good eggs. Then the cloth or linen must be folded, and kept in a cool and dry place, until it shall be thought proper to take off the eggs, which is done by putting the cloth into pure water, and when thoroughly wetted, scraping gently the

eggs from the cloth, taking care not to injure them. When thus scraped into the water all the good eggs will go to the bottom and the bad, if any, will swim at the top, as mentioned above, Art. 1.

The eggs being thus washed, must be dried in the open air, and when perfectly dry the best mode to preserve them is to put them into hollow reeds, or canes, perfectly dry, and closed at the two extremities with a thin piece of flaxen or cotton linen well fastened. It is also the best means to transport them from one place to another.

#### 7. Of cocoons intended for sale.

In order to prevent the cocoons from being perforated by the moths escaping from them, which greatly lessens their value, it is necessary to kill the moths. This is generally done by baking in an oven or by steam, but the best mode, which is peculiarly well adapted to warm climates, is to lay the cocoons on linen or cotton sheets, but not too close, or one upon another, and to expose them thus to the heat of the sun in open air, when it is perfectly dry, during four days from 11 A.M. to 4 P.M. taking great care in handling them not to crush or flatten them, which is of the highest importance. In that time there is no doubt that the moths will be killed.

The processes of steaming and baking are not always safe, because they may be overdone and the silk greatly injured. I have seen instances of it in this country. Yet if the weather should prove obstinately damp or rainy, those processes must be resorted to, but not in dry sunny weather, when they can be avoided.

The last thing to be spoken of is the packing of the cocoons to send to market. They must be put in boxes with great care, not pressed too close, lest they should be flattened, and close enough that they should not suffer in like manner by striking hard upon each other in consequence of the motion of carriages or stages. The boxes being dry and well conditioned may be transported by steam boats; if transported by sea, they should not remain longer than fifteen days on salt water, lest they should become mouldy. On river water, and particularly by steam-boats, there is not the same danger. The boxes in every case should be covered with a tarpaulin or good oiled cloth, that they

may in no case suffer from dampness or rain.

The price of good cocoons in France is from twenty-five to thirty-five cents per pound of sixteen ounces; I mean of perfect cocoons. Perforated cocoons, from which the moth has escaped, those which are spotted, and the imperfect ones, called *chiques* mentioned in the essay No. V. command no price, and are generally given away by the silk culturists. There are but few of them, because those who raise silk worms being experienced in the business, produce hardly any but good cocoons. When these are sold, the bad ones are thrown into the bargain.

The price of cocoons in this country cannot yet be settled; but it will be the interest of the silk culturist to sell them in the beginning as cheap as possible, to encourage the silk manufactures, which alone can procure them regular purchasers, and without which their produce must lie upon their hands.

J. D'HOMERGUE.

#### COMPARISON BETWEEN JUVENAL AND HORACE.

Among the Roman satirists, whose works have descended to us, none is so little known, with respect to his parentage and education, as Juvenal. Horace in his works, gives us numerous hints of what he was, under what circumstances he lived, and how he was educated. All we know with certainty of Juvenal is the period in which he flourished. But the effects of this period are so visible in him, and the differences which a short distance of time had produced between him and Horace so striking, that a description of his writings without portraying also the men of his time and the circumstances under which he wrote, could not fail to be enigmatical and unsatisfactory. We shall therefore take a short survey of the principal changes which, in the short space of time between Augustus and Domitian, the character, life and manners of the Romans had undergone. Although Augustus unfortunately gave but too much cause of complaint to the small number of republicans who had escaped the fury of civil wars, yet it can



not be denied that by every means in his power, he strove to counteract the general depravity which threatened with a total subversion the still liberal form of government. And had the tottering empire been blessed with a series of monarchs as keenly sensible to public and private infamy, and possessing as much moderation and prudence as Augustus, there is no doubt but a sense of shame, extinct in the Roman people, would have rekindled, and decency, worth and merit would again have risen in public estimation. But fate had otherwise decreed. Depraved and declining Rome saw a succession of rulers whose vices and follies were fully adequate to destroy, even the soundest and most flourishing state. Tiberius, by accepting, to its full extent, the slavish submission of the senate which his predecessor had so strenuously rejected laid the foundation for an all-overwhelming despotism. He, however, yet restrained himself so far as not to indulge his vicious propensities before the eyes of the people. But Caligula, that monster diseased in body and mind, no longer restrained by any sense of delicacy, indulged his vices more publicly. His short reign was characterized by nothing but wanton cruelties, infamous debaucheries and ridiculous practices. Claudius, almost an idiot, ignorant alike of his weakness and his strength, raised, as it were, by accident to the throne, was successively the willing tool for the perpetration of every crime in the hands of some avaricious freedmen and two women—the disgrace of their sex. His reign was so filled with abominations of all kind, that it was doubted whether there could be a worse. But Nero came and the doubt was removed. Under the mild reigns of Vespasian and Titus the empire seemed only to have revived and flourished again, that Domitian, far exceeding the worst of his predecessors in monstrous enormities, might have the more to annihilate. Such a succession of depraved rulers could not fail to have a very corrupting influence on the Romans of all ranks, constituted as the nation was at that period. In the

first place we remark the abject servility of the great to their imperial master: next to this the unconcerned shamelessness, with which all sorts of vices were publicly indulged. Neither rank, birth, education, sex nor age made, in this respect, any difference. We may also consider the extreme lavishness and folly in the choice of the sensual gratifications as characteristic of the time.

We will not say, however, that towards the end of the first century there existed any perversity unknown to the Romans in the beginning of it. Avarice, Epicurism, unnatural voluptuousness, adulation and servility prevailed already to an alarming extent in the time of Augustus, but these vices were still kept within certain bounds, which none with impunity dared to overstep. Under the subsequent reigns a deterioration in manners and morals is manifest. No longer the lower classes merely, but high officers of the empire, with the emperor at their head, are the persons who seek their honour in folly and their fame in ignominy. Dissolute effrontery, brutal debauchery show themselves in broad day light and make it their boast to trample upon whatever is regarded most sacred and venerable.

The satires of Juvenal, written under the infamous successors of Augustus would necessarily have assumed a character different from those of Horace, even though these satirists had been similar in manner of thinking, education and talent. But from what we collect there was also, in this respect, a total dissimilarity between them. As far as the moral character of a man may be judged of by his writings, Juvenal was a man of strict probity, a stern Roman of the old school. The frailties of human nature and the influence which circumstances exert on the mind of men were either not known to him, or were without any weight in the scales by which he weighed the moral worth of human actions. He did not possess the humour and natural cheerfulness of Horace. Whatever vice or folly he inveighs against, he is always cold and serious, and we are tempted to

believe either that nature had denied him the gift of laughing, or that age had altered and saddened his jovial disposition, for it is supposed he wrote his satires when he was old. Horace and Juvenal not merely differ in some particulars but in their very essence. The former likes to laugh at folly, the latter only persecutes the vicious. But the difference in the choice of their subjects is not so striking as that which is observable in their manner of treating them. Horace is a discreet courtier, a man of the world who purposely moderates his powers. Juvenal is a stranger to moderation; the characteristic of his satire is anger and indignation; his raillery is downright scorn. He appears more intent on punishment than correction. He never seems satisfied until the object of his wrath sinks under his lashes. A deadly hatred against every depravity had taken possession of his soul, and no consideration could restrain it from breaking out in the most violent manner. He attacked the vicious of all ranks. No vice prevailed but he would pourtray it, and use the crudest colouring in his pictures. If Horace, from a wanton playfulness, offends at times against decency of expression, Juvenal, from sheer indignation, violates decorum almost at every step. If the former slightly and laughingly gibes the Romans for their extravagance and epicurism, or merely reminds them of the simplicity and frugality of their forefathers, the latter will scold and censure them severely. If the one contents himself with merely quizzing, *en passant*, the scribblers of his time, the other will not think it beneath his dignity, to stop and abuse them with animosity. If Horace smiles at or pities the vain cares and idle wishes of mortals, Juvenal will rave and rail at them, trying to exhibit not merely their folly but their turpitude and infamy also. Horace not unfrequently will lay satire entirely aside; and, as a pleasant companion, will amuse our leisure by interesting details or instruct our understanding by a quiet and well conducted argument. Juvenal, on the contrary, pursues without

deviation the track he has once entered upon. His mind is too impetuous to indulge for any length of time in philosophical reflections, or abide in the peaceable regions of didactic poetry. The number and proximity of censurable objects occupy him too much and the desire of punishing them is too lively to give way to moral reflections of his own. Instead of indulging, like Horace, in discussions with himself on his subject, he proceeds rapidly from one portraiture to another and gives examples instead of warnings, and facts instead of abstract principles. No where do we meet in his writings such instructive details, nor such a succession of excellent sentences as we find in the first and second satire of Horace and in his second epistle of the first book. Though it cannot be said that Juvenal possesses in a less degree than Horace the faculty of observing, and expressing with happiness his observations, yet his satires are deficient in that philosophical spirit which pervades and animates the writings of the latter. But this deficiency is abundantly compensated by his poetical merit: there is hardly any satirist of ancient or modern time whose descriptions are more animated and true than his. Every word tells and every line is of intrinsic value. His portraits are delineated by few but effective strokes, and if they want that industrious finish remarkable in those of Horace, they possess, in return, a striking likeness in the principal features. He seldom fails in saying a great deal in few words; his endeavour to ennoble and strengthen his expression by energetic brevity is mostly crowned with success. But though his diction, as far as dignity, nobleness and form of expression go, will satisfy the nicest criticism, it cannot be denied that it is altogether deficient in that graceful ease which is so remarkable in Horace. He is often led into obscurity from a too great desire to be brief and his continual hunting after forcible and energetic expressions often gives an appearance of stiffness to his style. His metaphors are not always conformable to good taste and his similes too extrava-

gant to be accurate. If we allow that his subjects are more elaborately treated his expressions more eloquent and his verses more highly finished than those of Horace, we must also admit the labour he bestowed on them to be rather too visible.

## B.

## CONVENTION.

(Continued from page 571.)

After the convention had gone through all the reports, the whole constitution, as amended, was submitted to a committee of seven, to put into form, as well as to distribute the members of both houses of the legislature among the several counties and senatorial districts, and after the amended constitution was reported by them, the subject of future apportionments was again introduced on the 8th. of January, by various propositions, all of which failed, except Mr. Cooke's, which provided for a new distribution in 1841, and every succeeding ten years, observing however *the same proportion between the four great divisions of the state*, as is made by the plan now adopted. The vote in its favor was fifty-six to thirty-nine.

Much time was spent and much local feeling was excited in apportioning the members among the several counties, and for the sake of conciliation, and to make a nearer approach to equal justice among them, it was found necessary to increase the number of delegates to 134—56 to the west, and 78 to the east.

On the 12th. of January, Mr. Madison proposed that a new apportionment of members in both houses might be made by the legislature in 1841, and every succeeding ten years, throughout the commonwealth, *two thirds of each house* concurring, which proposition, after several fruitless attempts to amend it, was adopted by 50 to 45, and this was the closing act of the convention in the perplexing struggle between different political principles united with conflicting local interests.

In all the various propositions for the distribution of political power between the east and the west, provision was made for apportioning it among the four districts, in the House of Delegates, though for the sake of brevity we have united the two

eastern and the two western. According to the plan finally adopted, the distribution was as follows.

To the Trans-Alleghany district	31
To the Valley district	25
To the Middle district	42
To the Tide Water district	36

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Having bestowed so much time on the questions of the basis of representation and the right of suffrage, or, in other words on the local distribution of political power, and the portion of the community who were to be its depositaries, we must be content to take a briefer notice of the other principal provisions appertaining to the legislative department, as well as of those which relate to the executive and the judiciary.

The congressional districts of the state are to be formed on the federal ratio, that is, the white population and three fifths of the slaves. This provision was objected to by the western members, not because they considered it unjust or unreasonable, but they were unwilling to provide a rule of apportionment for members of congress, when one could not be obtained for the state legislature. It was passed on the twelfth of January, by sixty votes to thirty five—four of the western members voting with the majority.

Members of the senate are required to be *thirty years* of age, and those of the house delegates to be *twenty five*. These provisions were reported by the legislative committee, and unsuccessful attempts were made in the committee of the whole to alter the qualifications to the ages of twenty five and twenty one, agreeably to the constitution of 1776, but they were rejected by 45 votes to 37, and the subject was not afterwards agitated.

Persons holding lucrative offices, and ministers of religion are also excluded from seats in the legislature.

No law increasing the compensation of members of assembly can take effect until after the *end* of the next annual session after it was enacted. An ineffectual attempt was made to postpone the operation of such act to the *commencement* of the succeeding session. Members of assembly are not eligible to any office created, or the emoluments of which were increased, during their term of service.

The House of Delegates alone has the

power of originating laws, but the power of amending them in the senate is extended to *money bills* as well as all others. Mr. Giles's proposition to give the senate also the power of *originating* all but money bills, as is the case in the constitution of the United States, was rejected.

Authority is given to the legislature to disqualify all persons concerned in duelling from holding any "post of profit, trust, or emolument." This provision was introduced because the constitutionality of such a law, particularly as it applied to members of assembly, had been often called in question. A further provision, however, allowing the legislature to prescribe a test oath, as the existing anti-duelling law does, was rejected by fifty-three to forty. A general amnesty was extended to all who have "heretofore" violated the law.

All officers are impeachable by the House of Delegates before the Senate, and two thirds of the members present are necessary to conviction.

In all elections to officers of "trust, honor or profit," the votes shall be given *vi-va voce*, and not by ballot, as has hitherto been done in elections by the general assembly.

The two branches of the legislature, by joint vote, have the power of electing the governor, the council of state, the judges, the treasurer, and the attorney general. They may also, if the law shall so provide, appoint militia officers, not below the rank of brigadier general.

Besides these powers conferred on the legislature, they are expressly prohibited from passing certain laws, either on account of their general and unquestionable impolicy, or because they are inconsistent with our civil polity; such as *ex post facto* laws—laws impairing the obligation of contracts—abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or of religious worship or suspending the writ of *habeas corpus* &c.

The executive power is now vested solely in a governor, who shall hold his office for three years, and be ineligible for the same term. He must be thirty years of age, and must be a native citizen, or a citizen at the adoption of the federal constitution.

According to the report of the select committee, all were excluded except native citizens of the United States. Before the subject was finally acted on, General

Alexander Smyth, a member of the House of Representatives, addressed a memorial to the convention, in which he stated that he was born in Europe, and had been a citizen and inhabitant of Virginia ever since 1775, and that having been born a British subject and come here before the revolution, he was in fact a natural born citizen. He therefore prayed a reconsideration of the subject.

A few days afterwards, Judge Summers, one of the members from the district in which General Smyth resides, moved to amend the clause so as to make those eligible who had been citizens fourteen years. But it was rejected. He then moved to amend it in favor of those who were citizens at the adoption of the federal constitution, which was carried by 46 to 41.

A similar exclusion of naturalized citizens is to be found in several of the constitutions of the states made within the last ten or twelve years; but if the *naturalization* of a foreigner means the conferring on him the privileges and immunities of a native citizen, then all direct discriminations between *naturalized and native* citizens would seem to be contrary to the constitution of the United States, except the single one, concerning the presidency, which is mentioned in that constitution.

A like discrimination between these classes of citizens was also proposed in settling the right of suffrage, but it was rejected, apparently from doubts of its constitutionality. Supposing the provision constitutional, a more unnecessary distrust of the legislature, or a more improbable case of the superior popularity of a naturalized citizen, cannot easily be imagined.

The governor's salary can neither be increased nor diminished during his continuance in office. He has the power of pardoning; of filling vacancies *pro tempore* in such offices as are permanently filled by the assembly; and of appointing justices of the peace, (who also constitute the county court magistrates) sheriffs and coroners, on the recommendation of the county courts. He is commander in chief of the land and naval forces of the state.

He has a council of three, who remain in office three years. But after the first election, each of the three will be elected in a different year, so as to make one vacancy and one appointment every year. It is made the duty of the governor to consult

the council, who are required to record their advice, and lay it before the legislature when called for. The senior councillor is the lieutenant governor.

The manner in which the governor should be appointed was one of the most closely contested questions in the convention; about one half wishing the election to be with the people, and the other preferring it to be, as heretofore, with the legislature. Towards the end of the session, the majority changed sides, and the question in favor of an election by the legislature was carried by fifty to forty-six. This appeared to be a local question either in interest or feeling, as thirty-five of the thirty-six members from the west voted in the minority.

The question of abolishing the council of state was disputed with yet more warmth and pertinacity than the preceding, although the majority in favor of that measure was more decisive. Various propositions were made for a council, varying as to the number of councillors, their powers, term of service, and mode of appointment, all of which were rejected until the twelfth of January, when the question was carried in favor of a council by 51 votes to 44—all the western members except two voting in the negative.

The election of sheriffs by the people, instead of by the county courts, had been generally preferred by the western members, and a provision to this effect had prevailed in the legislative committee; it was however rejected in committee of the whole by a large majority.

The judiciary power is vested in a supreme court of appeals, such superior courts as the legislature shall establish, the county courts and corporation courts, and justices of the peace. The judges of the court of appeals and the superior courts hold their offices during good behaviour, but are removable by two thirds of the members present of each branch of the legislature.

Their compensation cannot be diminished while they remain in office, and if any court should be abolished by the legislature, by any majority less than two thirds of the members present in each branch, it shall not deprive any judge of such courts of his office. Other judicial duties may however be assigned to him by the legislature.

The judges now in office shall so continue until the end of the session of the first legislature, under the new constitution.

Although the subject of the judiciary was one of the last which was acted on, there had been early indications that there was a considerable diversity of opinion in the convention concerning this department; and that while all, or nearly all, seemed to wish to make the judges at once independent and responsible, they differed widely as to what constituted a sufficient degree of independence, on the one hand, and of responsibility on the other. This was one of the questions, moreover, in which the difference of opinion among the members had no relation to their geographical position.

The report of the judiciary committee had a clause to the same effect in favor of the judges now in office, with a further provision that if any of them should not be reappointed, the legislature "may cause to be paid to them such sums, as from their age, infirmities and past services, shall be deemed reasonable."

A motion by Mr. Scott, on the tenth of December, to make this provision imperative on the legislature, instead of discretionary, was rejected.

Another by Mr. Morgan to strike out this clause was also rejected by forty-eight to thirty-nine. The committee had recommended an appointment by a *concurrent* vote of both houses of the general assembly, but it was amended to a *joint* vote.

The report of the committee had also provided that the abolition or modification of a court should not deprive its judges of their office, but that other judicial duties may be assigned them.

On the eleventh, Mr. P. P. Barbour moved to strike out this provision, and after an animated debate, the amendment was rejected in committee of the whole—by 53 to 36.

On the thirty-first of December, in convention, Mr. Cabell moved to amend this clause with a proviso, that if no judicial duties should be assigned to the judge of a court which had been abolished, he should receive no salary.

After some debate, and several unsuccessful attempts to modify the amendment, it was carried by 59 votes to 36.

The sense of the convention was taken

on the same day, on the provision for such of the present judges as should not be re-appointed, and that clause was struck out by 50 votes to 44.

It was then proposed to strike out the remainder of the resolution, which limits the term of service of the present judges to the end of the first session of the legislature under the new constitution, and it was rejected by 59 votes to 32. The judges Green, Coalter and Summers declining from delicacy to vote on this question.

On the 7th. of January, on motion of Mr. Thompson, the vote of two thirds of the members *present*, instead of two thirds of the members of the senate, were required for conviction on *impeachment*. 55 voting in favor, and 41 against the proposition.

A similar amendment was moved by Mr. Stuart as to the *removal* of the Judges, which was also carried, by 52 votes to 43.

On the 13th. of January, it was moved by Mr. Claytor to make the judges removable by a *joint*, instead of a *concurrent* vote of both houses of the legislature. The motion was rejected by 73 votes to 22.

Mr. Scott on the same day moved that the abolition of a court by law should not deprive its judge of his office, *unless two thirds* of the members present concurred in passing the law; and after a long and spirited debate, the motion was carried by 53 votes to 42, which places the judges on the same footing as was first proposed by the judiciary committee, except when a court shall be abolished by two thirds of each house of assembly, in which case, the legislature is under no obligation to provide for them.

One of the favorite objects of reform, with most of those who had denied a convention, was the mode of appointing the county court magistrates by the executive, *on the recommendation* of the courts themselves, which virtually gave them the power of perpetuating their large powers in their own families, a power which in small counties they were often not slow to exercise. This mode of appointment had however prevailed in the committee.

On the 30th, of November, in committee of the whole, Mr. Bayley moved to strike out that part of the report of the judiciary committee which made the "county courts" a part of the constitutional courts, so as to

leave the subject open to the legislature. After an animated debate on this and the following day, the amendment was rejected by a majority of more than three fourths.

Mr. Campbell of Brooke then proposed to change the term "*the* county courts," to "county courts," so that it might be competent to the legislature to change the mode of appointment. The proposition prevailed by 48 votes to 44. But on the following day, on a reconsideration of this question, the vote was reversed, and the word "*the*" retained, by 50 to 44 votes.

On the 10th. of December, the subject of the county courts being under consideration of the convention, after two unavailing attempts to substitute other modes of appointment, the question was taken upon striking out the mode of appointment (by the governor on their own recommendations,) and it was rejected by 48 votes to 44. After which, several amendments, that the whole number of new magistrates recommended should be adopted or rejected by the executive—that the same individuals once rejected by the executive should not be again presented by the court—and that the justices of the peace (or county court magistrates,) should be removable by law, and not only for malfeasance, neglect &c, but also for insolvency, were all rejected, and this part of the former constitution, which is as much a favorite with one part of the community, as its mode of appointment is odious to another part, remained unchanged.

The tenure of the clerks of the courts, present and future, "which was during good behavior," is left to be prescribed by law.

Nearly connected with this subject were six resolutions, offered by Judge Summers on the 14th of December, the objects of which were to divide each county into wards, in which the qualified voters should choose commissioners, to form a board of police.

This board was to have the charge of all those fiscal concerns of the counties which are now managed by the county courts—the roads and bridges—the poor, and the public schools. They were also to recommend fit persons to fill the office of justices of the peace.

He further developed his plan and pointed out its advantages, in a speech, but the

sense of the convention on this subject being taken, it was rejected by a majority of about 20 votes.

On the 30th of December, the first resolution reported by the committee on the Bill of Rights, that some mode should be provided for future amendments of the constitution, was taken up, and after a speech against it by Mr. Randolph, and nothing said in favor of it, it was rejected by 68 votes to 25.

The course taken on this occasion was prudent, if not necessary, considering that to the inherent difficulty of adjusting this renovating process, was added that which had existed in settling the basis of representation, so that it is extremely improbable that any plan could have been devised that would not have been deemed objectionable, on one or both these accounts, to a majority of the convention. But on the merits of the question itself, it may be remarked that every constitution which has not such a provision has one more chance for premature death—that all the good, which has been done by this convention might have been attained, and all the public alarm and agitation which attended it, and the heart burnings and discontent which preceded it, might have been avoided, if the first constitution had contained such a provision—that if the opinions of others is entitled to respect, no less than twenty of our constitutions, including that of the United States, have such a provision, and that but one of the five, which do not contain it—has been formed since 1777.—And lastly, that the power has proved very salutary in the case of the constitution of the United States, and the want of it, in the first constitution of New York, has produced the same, and perhaps yet greater mischief, than it has in Virginia.

The last question agitated in the convention was, to whom the amended constitution was to be submitted for approval or rejection. On the 14th. of January, it was insisted in debate by Mr. Randolph that it should be submitted to the freeholders alone, Mr. Johnson and Mr. Cooke maintaining that it should be submitted to the voters qualified under the new constitution, as the act of assembly, organizing a convention had authorised, them to do. There was, however, no motion on the subject. On the following day, the last of the con-

vention, Mr. Randolph moved that the amended constitution should be submitted to "the persons qualified to vote under the existing constitution," and after some debate, the motion was rejected by 66 votes to 28.

This question is not without difficulty, when tested by the received principles of political right, for if, on the one hand, it be said that the unauthorised act of the last legislature was ratified by the people, when they acted under it, in choosing members to the convention, it may, on the other hand, be urged, that the act of the legislature was inconsistent with itself, in professedly giving the convention the power of only *proposing* a constitution, and at the same time virtually giving them the power of securing its ratification, by enlarging or restricting the right of voting at pleasure—and that the people should not be held to have given their sanction to a power so subversive of their own, by mere *implication*. But whatever may be thought of the soundness of the decision, on the principles of strict constitutional law, it is, without doubt, in accordance with the feelings of the public, and it is moreover, of no practical importance, as the amended constitution bids far to be ratified by a large majority of the freeholders.

The question of the final adoption of the constitution was then taken and passed by 55 votes to 40—every member from the west voting against it (except Mr. Cooke,) together with six members from the east.

Although this instrument, the result of successful struggle or reluctant concession, has probably completely satisfied the wishes of no one—but has, in more than one important point, contravened some political maxim, or infringed some rule of justice or expediency, according to the opinion, not only of every member of the convention, but of every politician in the commonwealth, yet, on that very account it is likely to be better suited to the circumstances of those for whom it is made. In common with the rest of the community we, too, might make our objections. They would however be very few, for we believe that it is the best constitution, which under existing circumstances, it was practicable to obtain, and that in almost every particular in which it has changed the constitution, of 1776, it is an improvement.

We regard the following as the alterations

which are the most important, and the least questionable.

The reduction of the House of Delegates from 214 members to 134. The effect of which will not only be a considerable annual saving, but also a probable improvement in the character of the legislation.

The increase in the senate from 24 to 32, by which the former too great disparity between the houses is lessened; and while the *body* will feel somewhat more confidence in itself, the power of the individual members will be diminished.

Political power is more equally distributed among the large districts of the state.

The gross inequality of representation among the several counties is also corrected. To effect this reform, twenty-eight counties and three towns have gained more weight in the legislature than they had before, and seventy-seven counties and one town have less. Thus:

3 Counties, now sending three members each, gain as		107 to 44
25 do	two members each gain	107 " 79
3 towns	one member each gain	214 " 134
67 Counties		one member each, lose 134 to 107
8	four members together lose	268 " 107
2 Counties }	one member together lose	134 " 43
1 Town }		

The extension of the right of suffrage to a numerous class of citizens, not distinguishable in feelings or interest from most of those who formerly enjoyed it.

The extension of the powers of the governor, and the changes in the functions of the council, as well as of their term of service, and the reduction of their number.

The provision for removing a judge, whenever the case is so urgent and manifest as to obtain the concurrence of two thirds of each branch of the legislature.

And lastly, the amnesty to those who have violated the anti-duelling law

In conclusion, we would remark that this constitution, like that which it is meant to supplant, has the rare merit of doing little more than organizing the different departments, leaving the legislature free to provide for the public welfare, according to the exigencies of the occasion, and the changes produced by the silent operation of time. We now take leave of the subject.

Q.

#### THE LIFE OF ARTHUR LEE.

The two volumes, containing the life

and correspondence of Arthur Lee, are chiefly valuable as adding to the stock of materials for the future historian of the American Revolution. We are glad to see every thing brought to light which may in any manner make us better acquainted with the origin and progress of that great event, not only because it will always excite the liveliest national feelings in the numerous millions who are destined to inhabit this continent, but because it is likely also to be an object of increasing interest with the rest of the world.

The subject of this biography was a native of Westmorland county, in this state, and one of the diplomatic agents of the United States, during the revolution for which delicate office he seems to have possessed all the most essential requisites.

He was one of six brothers; *all of whom*, it deserves to be remarked, obtained office and distinction by their talents. Philip Ludwell the eldest was a member of the King's council, Thomas Ludwell, a member of the Assembly; Richard Henry and Francis Lightfoot were both members of the old Congress, and have the honor of being signers of the declaration of independence. William was an Alderman of London, and one of the two persons who jointly constitute the sheriff of that city, at the time that another American, (Stephen Sayre, of New York,) was the other. Arthur, whose life and papers are now given to the world, was the youngest.

He was born in 1770, received his classical education at Eton school in England, and went from thence to Edinburgh, to study medicine. He graduated there with some eclat, returned to Virginia, and having practised for a short time, he returned to England, at the age of twenty-six, to study law. After studying in the temple four years, in 1770 he commenced the practice in London, and continued it until 1776, when the revolution, which his countrymen were struggling to effect, changed his destiny and pursuits.

While he was living in London he had, on several occasions, distinguished himself as a writer in behalf of the rights of



America, in consideration of which he in 1775, received the appointment of secret agent of Congress, and in the following year, he went to Paris in that character. In the same year he was appointed a joint commissioner to the court of France with Dr. Franklin and Silas Deane.

He was afterwards appointed a commissioner first to Spain, and then to Prussia. He returned to America in 1780, was afterwards appointed a delegate to Congress from Virginia, and so continued until the adoption of the new Constitution in 1789. In 1784 he was sent as a commissioner to treat with the north western Indian tribes. He was also one of the Board of Treasury from 1784 to 1789. After the new Constitution went into operation, he retired to private life in Virginia, and so continued until his death, which took place three years afterwards, in the 52nd. year of his age.

These volumes contain, besides the biographical part by the author, Mr. Rich. H. Lee, about five times as much of Arthur Lee's correspondence, consisting of papers relative to his several diplomatic acts, and of extracts from a journal kept by him, at the time he was a joint commissioner at Paris with Dr. Franklin and Mr. Deane, and when he acted as a commissioner to the Indians.

The first part of this journal is the most interesting portion of the book. It is easy to see that there was no cordiality between Mr. Lee and his colleagues, and there are clear manifestations of ill feeling and distrust towards them both. This collision operated to the disadvantage of all the parties during their lives; but the injury was only temporary with Dr. Franklin and Mr. Lee, because, (we must presume) it was unmerited. It would certainly be unreasonable to attach much weight to the insinuations against Dr. Franklin made by Mr. Lee in his secret journal, written probably when irritated by a difference of views or opinions, and certainly under the influence of unkind feelings. If this should be regarded as evidence against a reputation otherwise well sustained, what man's character would be

safe? We cannot now enter further into this subject.

We were sorry to see so manifest an effort to supply the defect of materials for the biography of Mr. Lee, by pressing into the service much, that is foreign, or of little interest. An anecdote of Voltaire is of this character, and it is the more unfortunate, as it is a well known story told as if it were new, but so altered as to lose much of its point. We allude to the celebrated epigram which the author of "Night Thoughts" is said to have made on Voltaire, and which Dr. Johnson mentions in his life of Young in these words: "You are so witty, profligate and thin, At once we think thee Milton, Death and Sin."

This happy impromptu, which, by the way, Dr. Johnson intimates it was not, Mr. Lee, in his second hand version, thus alters, so as to spoil its measure and its wit.

You little, profligate, and thin  
You are Miltons's devil, death and sin."

P.P.

#### UNIVERSITY OF BERLIN.

The following list of separate courses of lectures delivered in the University of Berlin in the winter half year of 1826 and 1827, commencing on the 23d. of October 1826, will shew the great multiplication of subjects and the extensive opportunities for acquiring information in the Universities of Germany.

##### PROFESSIONAL LECTURES.

1. THEOLOGY. *Theological Encyclopædia* with the history of theological science, five times a week. An introduction to the books of the *Old Testament*, three times. *Hebrew Grammar*, twice—the exercises of an *Old Testament exegetical association*. *Genesis* elucidated three times a week. *Select portions*, especially the practical sections of the four last books of *Moses*, once a week—the wise sayings of *Isaiah* elucidated weekly, —the general principles of *Hermeneutics and criticism* with especial reference to the *New Testament*, five hours weekly—the three first *Evangelists* synoptically elucidated, daily—the *Gospel of St. Matthev* four hours weekly—the *epistles of Paul to the Romans and Galatians*, five hours weekly—the *Epistles of the Apostle Peter*, gratuitously, twice a week—the second part of the *Church History* five hours weekly—the history of dogmas, five hours weekly—a development of the doctrines maintained

\* Taken from the *Allgemeine Literatur-Zeitung* for September, 1826.

in the symbolical writings of the *Frangelico-Lutheran and reformed church*, one hour weekly—*scientific dogmas* five times a week—the *homilies* four times—the *Liturgy*, once, and the *homiletical exercises* twice.

2. **LAW.** *Encyclopædia of positive law*, five times a week—*Natural Law*, four times—*Institutions and antiquities of Roman law*, four times—*History of Roman Law*, five times—the same by another Professor—the *Pandect, Title de origine juris* weekly, gratis—*History of Roman law in the middle ages*, two hours weekly—*Pandects*, five times weekly—the same by another Professor six times a week—*Law of succession and system of the common civil law* four times—the same by another Professor five times and by another five times—the *law of marriage* once a week—*family law* four times, gratuitously—the *Fatican Fragments* elucidated once a week publicly—*Canonical law* four times—the same by another six times—the same by another five hours weekly—*History of the sources of the canonical law*—*German state and law history* six times weekly—the *old German Law* twice a week, gratuitously—the *German private law* five times—the same five times by another—the same daily by a third—*Commercial law* including the *law of exchange and maritime law* four times—*Prussian general country law*, six hours weekly—*German state law*, twice—some parts of the *history of the state law*, in the middle ages once a week—*history of the progressive formation of the Prussian monarchy*, once—*feudal law* five times—the same, four times—the same, four times—the same, four times—*Criminal law* five times—*general German and Prussian criminal law and criminal process*, daily—*criminal law* by another—*civil process* in connection with practice, four times—*Prussian civil process* compared with the common law and French process, in connection with its practical employment, four times—*civil process* in other points of view, four times—*Juridical Hermeneutics* four times—*exegetical exercises*, once a week, publicly—*examinations and repetitions*.

3. **MEDICINE.** *Medical Encyclopædia and methodology*, once a week—*Anatomy* daily—*Osteology*, four times—*Syndesmology* twice publicly—*Splanchnology*, four times: these three by the same Professor—*Anatomy of the organs of sense*, twice publicly—*practical anatomical exercises*—*Pathology*, four times—*General Pathology*, four times—the same by another three times—*Pathological Anatomy*, four times—*Seuiotics* twice—*Special semeiotics*, four times—*Pharmacology* six times—*Therapeutics* five times—the same by another, five times—*Theoretical chemistry particularly as regards Pharmacy*, six times—the *Vegetable Materia Medica*, twice publicly—the *Formulary*, twice—*General Therapeia*, three times publicly—*Special therapeia of febrile and*

*chronic diseases* four times—*Special Nosological Therapeia*, five times—*Special Therapeia*, six times—the *second part of special Therapeia* six times—*General doctrine of fever*, two hours weekly in public—*Contagious Diseases*, weekly—*Syphilis* twice a week—the same, by others gratuitously, twice a week—*Diseases of Artisans*, twice—*Diseases of women and children*, twice—the *healing power of nature*—the means used by Mesmer and the critical days of Hippocrates, twice—*Natural history of intestinal worms*, twice publicly—*Ophthalmic diseases* five times—*General and special surgery with the doctrine of eye diseases and Syphilis*, six times—*General Surgery*, twice—*Fractures and dislocations of the bones*, weekly—*Äkiurgy or the doctrine of Surgical operations collectively* three times—*Äkiurgy* by another, five times, with demonstrations and exercises on the dead body at separate hours—*Some parts of Äkiurgy*, weekly—*Medical Surgery* twice—the *theoretical part of the art of obstetrics* twice—the same with a course of exercises and investigations and in the obstetrical manual and instrumental operations on the machine, four times—*First principles of obstetrics*, twice—theoretical and practical obstetrics, weekly—the same by another three times—*Instruction in Medical clinics in the Royal Medico-clinical institution of the University*, six times—*Clinical exercises in the Royal Polyclinical institution*, six times—*Medico practical exercises*—*The clinics of Surgery and eye diseases* six times—*practical exercises at the sick bed* in the surgical and ophthalmic clinic of the poor house infirmary—*Clinical instruction on syphilitic diseases* twice—*Obstetrical Clinics in the Royal Lying-in Infirmary* &c. four times—*Obstetrical Clinics* by another three times—*Legal Anthropology* four times—*Legal Medicine* three times—the same three times—the same four times—*Treatment of the apparently dead and of accidents*, twice—*Elucidation of the Aphorisms of Hippocrates in the Latin language*—*The books of Celsus on Medicine* elucidated, twice publicly—*The Ancient History of Medicine*, four hours weekly—*Medical Geography* twice weekly in public—*A recapitulation on Anatomy* by one of the Professors, four times—*Examinations twice a week on Materia Medica and Pharmaceutical operations*—*Examinations on Pharmaceutical Chemistry* three times by another—*Instructions in Surgical bandaging, in eye operations and in some parts of Medicine and Surgery*—*Veterinary Medicine* for administrators of public domains and rural economists, three times—*Doctrine of the diseases of domestic animals with the proper treatment* &c. three times.

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"POSCENTES VARIO MULTUM DIVERSA PALATO."—Hor. Lib. ii. Ep. 2.

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## ON THE DIVINING ROD.

"I will show you dat it is possible, a vary possible, to discover de spring of water, and de little fountain hidden in de ground, vidout any mattock, or spade, or dig at all."  
Doutserswivel, in the Antiquary.

Of the numerous popular superstitions which were formerly so prevalent, and which have yielded, one by one, before the "march of intellect," none, perhaps, has kept its ground more firmly than a faith, in the pretended virtues of the divining rod. That it has not yet even retreated into the ranks of the vulgar and ignorant, but has still supporters of the highest pretension, is shown by the following note, which we extract from the 22d volume of the Quarterly Review—a work which lays claim to the first place in the periodical literature of Great Britain.

The employment of the divining rod when used to discover *ore* or *metal*, was associated with many superstitious observances. The *fact* however, of the discovery of water being effected by it when held in the hands of certain persons seems indubitable. The following narrative, which has been lately communicated to us by a friend residing in Norfolk, puts the subject in the clearest point of view. And we shall simply state that the parties, whose names are well known to many of our readers, are utterly incapable either of deceiving others, or of being deceived themselves.

"January 21st, 1818—It is just fifty years since Lady N's attention was first called to this subject; she was then sixteen years old, and was on a visit with her family at a chateau in Provence, the owner of which wanted to find a spring to supply his house, and for that purpose had sent for a peasant, who could do so with a twig. The English party ridiculed the idea, but still agreed to accompany the man, who, after walking some way, pronounced that he had

arrived at the object of his search, and they accordingly dug and found him correct.—He was quite an uneducated man, and could give no account of the faculty in him or of the means which he employed, but many others, he said could do the same.

"The English party now tried for themselves but all in vain, till it came to the turn of Lady N., when to her amazement and alarm, she found that the same faculty was in her, as in the peasant, and on her return to England she often exerted it, though in studious concealment. She was afraid lest she should be ridiculed, or should, perhaps, get the name of a witch, and in either case she thought that she should certainly never get a husband.

"Of late years her scruples began to wear away, and when Dr H. HUTTON published Ozanam's researches in 1803, where the effect of the divining rod is treated as absurd she wrote a long letter to him, signed X. Y. Z., stating the facts which she knew. The Doctor answered it, begging further information; Lady N. wrote again, and he, in his second letter, requested the name of his correspondent: that Lady N. also gave.

"A few years afterwards she went, at Dr HUTTON's particular request, to see him at Woolwich, and she then shewed him the experiment and discovered a spring in a field which he had lately bought near the New College, then building. This same field he has since sold to the College, and for a larger price in consequence of the spring.

"Lady N. this morning shewed the experiment to Lord G. Mr. S., and me, in the park at W. She took a thin, forked hazel twig, about 16 inches long, and held it by the end, the joint pointing downwards. When she came to a place where water was under the ground, the twig immediately bent, and the motion was more or less rapid as she approached or withdrew from the spring. When just over it, the twig turned so

quick as to snap, breaking near her fingers, which by pressing it were indented, and heated, and almost blistered; a degree of agitation was also visible in her face. When she first made the experiment, she says this agitation was great and to this hour she cannot wholly divest herself of it, though it gradually decreases. She repeated the trial several times in different parts of the park, and her statements were always accurate. Among those persons in England, who have the same faculty she says she never knew it so strong in any as in Sir C. H. and Miss F. It is extraordinary that no effect is produced at a well or ditch, or where earth does not interpose between the twig and the water. The exercise of the faculty is independent of any volition.

"So far our narrator, in whom, we repeat, the most implicit confidence may be placed."

When this extraordinary narrative was first published here, we remember that it attracted universal attention. Many a learned essay on the subject appeared in our newspapers, and the doctrine of the British reviewer was confirmed by evidence to saturation, from every part of the country.

It was indeed an imposing spectacle for us simple republicans, to see the noble water witch, *Lady N.*, performing her divinations before *Lord G.*, *Sir C. H.*, &c.—persons not only "incapable of deceiving others," but, as the reviewer gravely asserts, "*utterly incapable of being deceived themselves.*"

Of the wonders ascribed to *Lady N.*, one of the most remarkable is that which she is said to have performed at Woolwich, where she visited Dr. Hutton, "at his particular request—showed him the experiment—and discovered a spring near the New College, so as to enable him to sell the field at a large price. Now it happens, notwithstanding the *infallibility* of the witnesses, that this statement was almost wholly unfounded. A contradiction soon made its appearance, from Dr. Hutton himself, in which it is explicitly stated, that *Lady N.*'s visit was *not* at his request, that it was not until *after* the field in question had been sold to the government, and that, although *Lady N.* did exhibit her pretended powers, with the forked stick, no spring, properly speaking, had ever been found in the premises. Dr. Hutton had, indeed, long before this visit, succeeded in procuring water, but it was by first sinking a well, and then boring the earth to a

considerable depth; a very different kind of *augury* from that of *Lady N.*

When we are seized by the love of the marvellous, it is never by halves; and imposture can invent no absurdity, which credulity is not ready to adopt. It was not enough that the divining rod should discover springs of water. Other claims were made for it; and they were yielded freely. In proof of this, we shall present our readers with another narrative, which we translate from the *Architecture Hydraulique of Bellidor*.

"The partisans of the divining rod gained considerable strength, by the prodigies which it was said to have performed, in the hands of a certain peasant of Dauphine, named *Jacques Aimar*, who made much noise in Paris in 1693, having had the art to persuade a great number of persons, even of the first distinction, that he had the virtue, by means of his rod, of discovering *springs, hidden treasures, thieves, and murderers*. He stated, that having been out one day with his divining rod, in search of water, it turned suddenly in a certain spot, where, upon digging, there was found, not a spring, but the body of a woman that had been strangled. He immediately concluded, that, as his rod had found the murdered body, it might very well discover the murderer. The event confirmed his opinion; for having traced the assassin, by the indications of the rod alone, for more than forty-five leagues, he at length overtook him at Lyons, and found him to be the woman's husband. He added, that, after that time, he had discovered many other murderers, whom he could distinguish from the innocent, because the rod always turned upon them, when he put his foot upon theirs.

"This story did not fail to gain great celebrity, without any one having been at the pains to investigate its truth, which notwithstanding appears to be very simple. *Aimar* may have had some suspicion of the murder, have searched and discovered naturally the place where the woman was buried, have suspected the husband, rather than any other, because he had run away, have followed him by information obtained on the road, and have found him at the end of forty-five leagues, and all this without recourse to any prodigy. However, as the faith of many persons, who cry up the virtues of the divining rod, is founded up-

on the authority of this worthy personage, we will relate another story of him.

“The minister Colbert having heard of the miracles published by Aimar, desired that the Royal Academy should see him, and commissioned the Abbé Gallois to produce him before them. M. Gallois, accordingly, brought him into the court of the king’s library—the members of the academy being placed at the windows—and showed him a purse filled with louis d’ors, telling him that he was going to hide it in the garden, and that they should then see whether he could find it. After having turned up the earth in a certain spot, M. Gallois came back to the court, led Aimar to the garden, and shut him in. Some time afterwards, the gate was opened, and Aimar came out complaining that they had left him shut up so long, and told the academy that the purse was at the foot of the wall, by the side of the dial. It happened, however, that the Abbe Gallois had not even taken the purse into the garden; and it was immediately shown by the friend to whom he had secretly given it. The impostor, seeing with what kind of people he had to do, slunk away from the place, and soon after left Paris.”

So much for Lady N., and Jacques Aimar. As to the pretenders in our own country, we can assure any of our readers, who may feel ambitious of the distinction, that he may soon rank himself in their number. Any one may be taught, in a few minutes, to hold the divining rod, and to turn it, at his will, in such a manner, that a spectator cannot perceive, even with the closest scrutiny, that the least effort is made for this purpose. Our adept has then only to seize his rod, to walk with a slow and solemn pace, to look very grave and knowing, and to turn the wand at any spot he pleases—and he may predict, with as much certainty as the renowned Doutserswivel himself, that water will be found there, if you will but dig for it deep enough.

TREVOR.

## POLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.\*

The Polish language is, like the Russian, a dialect of the ancient Slavonic.

\* See *Conversations-Lexicon. Art. Polen.*

The progress of its cultivation was early impeded by the introduction of the language of Rome, with the christian religion according to the rites of the Roman church. From the influence, which the clergy soon acquired, the Latin became by degrees the language of all those whose birth distinguished them from the vulgar, or those who pretended to a superior education. For a considerable time, there was hardly any thing written but in Latin. Towards the middle of the sixteenth century Polish began to be written more generally. But it was not before the reign of Stanislaus Poniatowski that it assumed that character of peculiar energy, which, in spite of all the political changes of the country, it preserves to this day. In the year 1801, a society was formed at Warsaw for the purpose of maintaining the Polish language in its purity. This society, of which the learned bishop Albertranti was then president, published, in 1802, the first volume of their transactions, and three more have been published since.

From the want of education, the servile condition of the common people, the impoverished state of the country, the thinness of population and the consequent difficulty of intercourse, the progress of literature has been but slow in Poland. Few Polish authors are known beyond the precincts of their country, and those that are known at all wrote in the Latin language. Polish literature, properly so called, first formed itself under the prosperous reign of Sigismund II. 1548—1573: it attained, in a short time, a high state of improvement, to which the then struggles for liberty of conscience in Germany greatly contributed; for the doctrines of Luther, being tacitly favored by the government, had many adherents among the Poles. Under the energetic reign of Stephan Bathory 1576—1586, literary activity did not relax, and under the subsequent reigns, the great statesman and warrior John Zamoyski contributed, by his own writings and the establishment of colleges, towards the literary improvement of his country. If after his death

Polish literature seemed to languish again, it was owing to the distracted state of affairs, and the pernicious influence of jesuitical jealousy and ambition on the liberty of the press. Under the wise government of the highly gifted Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski, literature revived and rose, during this period so fortunate for the scientific improvement of the Polish nation, to such a degree of eminence, and acquired such firmness, that all the subsequent revolutions, by which Poland has been blotted out from among the independent states, have not shaken it in the least. It is not, however, in a scientific point of view that we must estimate Polish literature, although it contains many excellent works in this respect also; its greatest value and interest are derived from a pure unadulterated nationality which is peculiar to it, and which few literatures of modern times can boast of possessing in the same degree. In every period of their history, full as it is of foreign usurpations, the restless, bold and independent spirit, peculiar to the Polish nation, is always visible. Their literature proceeds rapidly with the march of events, and turns only about such points as are of the greatest interest to their actual state of society. Hence their deficiency in philosophical writers. Moral philosophers they have none; their only mathematicians are Rogalsinski and Sosinski; and their astronomers Poczobut, Sniadecki and Copernicus; and these, with the exception of the last, are hardly known out of their own country. Hence also, on the other hand the number of their great historians, recording the transactions and events of their country, and the multitude of poets who, in pompous language, celebrate the high deeds of their forefathers, or in melancholy strains bewail, or with bitterness inveigh, against the present state of things. From these impassioned feelings the Poles seldom succeed in what are termed pure creations of the fancy. They have, however, by happy translations made most poetical productions of other nations their own. The ex-jesuit Na-

gurezewski has translated the *Iliad* and Virgil's eclogues, besides other works of antiquity. Dmochowski both the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* in noble and appropriate language and fluent versification. Tasso's "*Jerusalem*" has been translated by P. Kochanowski. Ossian by Tymieniecki, Krasiecki and Bradzinski. Horace by T. Kachonowski and more recently by Naruscewicz who also translated Tacitus in a masterly style and fully in the spirit of the original. Delille's "*Jardins*" has been rendered by Karpinski. As historians, deserve to be mentioned Strykowski, Orzechowski, Piasecki, Kochowski, Cromer, Sulikowski, Kobierzycki and above all Naruszwicz. In 1815, Niemcewicz, who has distinguished himself both as a statesman, a warrior and a poet, published a collection of historical popular songs which was so well received that it has passed through several editions since. Count Potocki published a history of the fine arts in 1816, a work on Rhetoric and a collection of orations on several subjects: Bratymowicz, a work on rural economy. Konarski is meritorious as a political writer and Zamoyski as an author on laws and government. The oldest monuments of classical Polish poetry are the works of T. Kachonowski, born 1550 died 1584. They consist of a free translation of the psalms, of elegies, epigrams and a didactic poem on chess-playing. Simonowicz is still considered a model in the pastoral, and Grochowski is sentimental, lyric poetry. Among the more recent poets deserve to be named as eminent, Trembecki, Kniaznin, Zablocki, Wingerski, Gorski, Wenkysz, Tomaszowski, the enthusiastic Kozmian, Tynowski, Osinski, the epigrammatic and fervent but incorrect Gorecki, the polished Falinski. Morowski and the Pindaric Woroniecz. Karpinski is remarkable for a pure and noble diction, intense and delicate feeling. The great but unfortunate Stanislaus Lesczinski also versified with success. And the Prince-bishop Keasicki, who died in 1802, is classical both in prose and

verse, a witty satirist and author of "*Woina Chociniska*" the only national epic of Poland. In 1817 there appeared a heroic poem in twelve cantos by Tomaszewski, under the title "*Jagellonida*" (the union of Lithuania with Poland.) The Polish literature is rich in dramatic works—the most excellent are by Bielawski, Zablocki, Kossakowski, Niemcewicz, Drozdowski, Wenzyk, Felinski, Osinski, Hoffman and Baguslawski. As pulpit orators Wyrwicz, Lachowski, Woronicz, Prazmowski Szaniowski, Jacobowski and Sweykowski are most eminent. Among the more recent prose-writers deserve to be mentioned Krasicki, Sniadecki, Osinski, Potocki, Albertranti, Karpinski, Smochowski, and Sweykowski. An excellent history of Polish literature has been published in 1815 by Bentkowski. In 1815 three literary journals appeared in Poland; they had increased to six, in 1818, and now there are eight. A large dictionary of the Polish language has been published, in six volumes quarto, Warsaw 1807—1814, which, with Kopezynski's grammar, leaves little more to be desired by the student of the Polish language.

## B

## CRADLE OF MANKIND.

The question of the original residence of man has frequently engaged the attention of philologists. It is one, which can be answered positively by historians only, but unfortunately we have little evidence from them—the few remarks contained in the sacred volume being insufficient for settling the question.

As far back as the date of the most remote of our historical records, which extend to about two thousand years prior to the christian era, we find the whole of Asia and a part of Africa, peopled by different nations of various manners, religion and language; carrying on extensive wars with each other, with here and there civilized states, possessing important inventions of all kinds, which must

have required a length of time for discovery, improvement and diffusion.

In the want of proper historical documents it behoves us, as Adelung has remarked, "to search the archives of nature, for the purpose of discovering traces which may lead us at least to conjectures, and these, fortunately, are not wholly wanting.\*"

The evidence of sacred history and the geological remains every where perceptible, even on the tops of the highest mountains, inform us that the surface of the earth was, at one period, covered by the waters, which subsequently receded and left it habitable. The highest portions of the earth would consequently be so earliest, and in such a situation mankind, probably, increased, and thence spread abroad on the gradual subsidence of the water.

The first beings were endowed by the Almighty with every human capability, but were devoid of knowledge and experience; they were consequently placed in a garden or paradise where their wants could be readily satisfied, and where every thing, that could add to the pleasures of existence, could be easily procured.

Such a garden, according to that learned writer is to be found in middle Asia, between the 30th and 50th degrees of north latitude and the 90th and 110th of east longitude from Ferro;—a situation which in respect to height can only be compared to the lofty plain of Quito in South America. From this elevation, of which the well known desert Kobi or Schamo is the highest point, Asia gradually sinks towards the four quarters, and thence the great mountain chains proceed, which intersect Asia in every direction.

In the declivities of this elevated region and of its mountain chains, all the great rivers arise, which flow through this division of the globe, on every side,—the Selinga, the Ob, the Irtisch, the Lena and the Jenisei to the north,—the Jaik,

\* *Mithridates, oder allgemeine sprachenkunde*. Th. i. p. v.

the Dsjihon (the *Oxus* of the antients,) the Jemba to the west,—the Amur and the Haungo or Yellow River, to the east, and the Indus, Ganges and Buhrampooter to the south. After the deluge this lofty region must have first become dry; and projected, like an extensive island, above the flood.

The cold and barren elevation of Kobi could not have been a suitable residence for the parents of the human race; but immediately on its south side lies remarkable county of Tibet, separated by lofty ridges from the rest of the world, and containing within itself every variety of climate. If on the snowy and icy mountains the severest cold prevails, a perpetual summer reigns in the vallies and well watered plains. Not only are the rice, the vine, pulse, fruit and all other vegetable productions,—which man employs for his nourishment, and has used for so many thousand years—indigenous there; but all those animals are found in a wild state, which he has domesticated and taken along with him over the earth;—the ox, the horse, the ass, the sheep, the goat, camel, swine, dog, cat, and even the valuable reindeer, his only friend and companion in the icy deserts of Polar countries. Zimmermann\* asserts that every one of the domesticated animals is from Asia; and that only 16 or 17 are proper to Europe, the greater part of which are of the mice and bat kind. Even the Indian corn, it is somewhat probable, was indigenous there, for we are told of a kind of corn, flourishing in the steppes of Mesopotamia, having leaves of four fingers' breadth. Eichhorn, *Weltgeschichte* B. 1. p. 56.) Close to Tibet and immediately on the declivity of this great central elevation, is the charming region of Kaschemire, whose lofty situation tempers the southern heat into a perpetual spring, and where nature exerts all her powers to produce plants, animals and man in the highest state of perfection.

There is no spot on the whole earth,

\* *Geographische Geschichte des Menschen*. Th. 3. S. 183.

which unites within itself all these advantages in such proportion, and where the human plant could have succeeded so well without any care as in Kaschemire; and if there is any portion of Asia, more than another, which can lay claim to being the seat of Paradise it is that. This singular and beautiful valley—lying between Persia, Tibet and Hindusthan and almost surrounded by impassable mountains—about one hundred and fifty miles long and one hundred broad; unites within itself every thing which the most luxurious imagination could fancy. It is full of fertile hills and innumerable springs and streams, several of which, when united, form the river Behut, which, like the Pison of Moses, flows slowly around the entire country, and becomes one of the chief branches of the Indus. The whole region, which is remarkably populous, resembles a series of extensive gardens interrupted only by towns and villages. Here Bernier found the Asiatic and European fruits in the greatest perfection; the *Pisang*, considered by Adelung to be the fig tree of Moses (*ohne Zweifel Mosıs Feigenbaum*), is no where so large and beautiful as there. The chief of the vegetable productions of the country is the rose, which is celebrated over all Asia for the splendour of its colours and the excellence of its perfume, and affords to the voluptuous its admirable oil or *Attar*. The commencement of the blooming of the rose is, consequently, one of the most joyful national festivals of the country.

Every kind of wild and domesticated animal is there found in superabundance, except the tiger, the lion, the bear and serpents, notwithstanding they are so common in the rest of India; "it seeming, as if nature had designedly removed from this paradise every thing which could prevent or embitter enjoyment." That the serpent, however, was not unknown there is proved by the name of the river Behut, which is called by the natives *Fernag* or serpent. The inhabitants of Kaschemire are also distinguished above all other Asiatics. They have



nothing of the Tartar and Mongolian appearance, which characterizes the Tibetans and the Chinese; on the contrary, they possess the most beautiful European form and excel all the other Asiatics in their intellectual faculties.

Indian mythology, which is probably as old as our own received history, paints the situation of the first men and their degeneracy much in the same manner as the Mosaic accounts. Their paradise is placed on Mount Meru, on the confines of Kaschemire and Tibet. From this mountain the four rivers Ganges, Gangra (*Buhrampooter*), Sindhu (*Indus*) and a fourth which runs to Tibet arise. In their paradise they place not only the tree of life and death—the Tschiampa (*Ind.*) Jamba (*Portug.*) whose fruit resembles an apple, and which is said to bear, at the same time, good and evil fruit, but likewise the tree of immortality; and the serpent, which poisoned the water as the origin of all things. Kaschemire is likewise a sacred country to the Hindu, and many of its springs are esteemed holy—another evidence that they hold it to be the cradle of their nation, civilization and religion.

The Mosaic account refers the theatre of the parents of the human race to Eastern Asia. The first pair, when they had quitted paradise, wandered farther towards the east. The descendants of Cain lived to the east of the land of Eden, that is in Tibet.

Here they invented the first arts, and, amongst others, the working of metals, for which no country perhaps in the world afforded greater facilities than Tibet, where there are whole mines of silver and copper. The land, rich in gold and precious stones, referred to by Moses, can be no other than Tibet, to whose treasures of gold, in the northern districts, even the fables of antiquity have alluded so frequently.

The ancestors of Noah dwelt to the east of the Indus, and after the deluge his family resided, for some time, in India, whence they began to migrate to western Asia—probably urged onwards by the increasing population.

India was now neglected by the historian, and attention directed only to this migratory race: still, there are manifest traces in the authors sacred and profane, that a constant commercial connexion was kept up with India.

Bailly (*Histoire de l'Astron. ancienne*) goes a step farther than we have done and concludes, from different astronomical considerations, that prior to the commencement of all history there must have existed a civilized state in the elevated region of Middle Asia, in which all the arts and sciences and especially philosophy, physics, astronomy, chemistry and medicine must have attained a state of advancement—but that a general convulsion probably destroyed this state—its inhabitants became dispersed, taking along with them and prosecuting some varieties of knowledge, but not saving the whole. At the very dawn of history, for example, in the whole of western Asia we find an acquaintance with the revolutions of the moon, the solar year—so difficult of accurate calculation—the zodiac, the doctrine of the planets, fixed stars &c. probably long before they could have been calculated by the Egyptians, Babylonians and Persians. These, and numerous other reasons, lead Bailly to the conclusion, that the mechanical capabilities, which we notice amongst the nations of antiquity, are only the remains of a previous, accomplished condition, which was destroyed by some great natural convulsion. This he considers to have been the deluge, known to all southern and western Asia by tradition; the former of which in its rent condition, constituted of innumerable clusters of islands and volcanic mountains, affords evidence of such a convulsion.

The high latitude, however, (from 50 to 60°. N.) in which Bailly places his primeval nation is extremely unfavorable to his hypothesis. It is the chilling region in which Dante has fixed his hell, and the country of Nomadic barbarians from whence, at all times, death and destruction have proceeded, but never the lights of science.

Out of the north, the evil Genii have been fabled to proceed, and the destroyer of the world himself, according to the *Zend-Avesta*. Bailly might, without prejudice to his theory, have placed his ideal nation twenty-five degrees farther to the south, where every physical circumstance would have been found to favour it.

The same objections apply to the primeval state of De l'Isle which he places on the highest tops of the Caucasus.

But the probabilities in favour of the cradle of mankind having been situated to the south of the elevated region of Middle Asia, would be greatly strengthened, if we could find there a nation still possessing a poor, rude, imperfect language, such as may be imagined to have existed in the infancy of the world and of the human intellect.

A nation of this character is actually to be found there—not, indeed, a *nation* only, but a whole mass of people, consisting, probably, of more than one hundred and eighty millions of individuals, whose language appears to be as simple as it must have been soon after its formation.

Kaschemire by the incessant changes which it has experienced in antient and modern times, has indeed kept pace with the rest of the world in the improvement of its language; but not so with Tibet—its neighbour—and with China and the kingdoms of Ava, Pegu, Siam, Tunkin and Cotschinschina. All these extensive countries and these alone, in the known world, betray the imperfection a newly formed or primitive language. As the earliest attempt of the child is a stammering of monosyllabic notes, so must have been that of the original child of nature;—and thus, the Tibetans, the Chinese, and their two neighbours to the south, continue to stammer monosyllabically, as they must have been taught thousands of years ago in the infancy of their race.

“No separation of ideas” says Adelung “into certain classes, whence arose the parts of speech in cultivated languages; the same sound, even which denotes *joyful*, signifies *joy*, and to *gladden* and

this in every person, number and tense. No art, connexion and subordinate ideas were united to the rude, monosyllabic root, thereby communicating richness, clearness and euphony to their meagre speech; but the rude, monosyllabic, radical ideas are perhaps placed broken and detached from each other, the hearer being left to supply the intermediate ideas. As the monosyllable admits of no inflexion the speaker either makes no distinction between cases and numbers, or, he seeks for aid in cases of great necessity in circumlocution. The plural he forms like the child either by repetition—*Tree, tree*, or by the addition of the words *many* or *other*—*Tree, many, tree other*. *I many* or *I others* is the same to him as *we*.” p. 19.

From these and other circumstances, Adelung considers himself justified in the conclusion—that these monosyllabic nations and languages are the earliest known and that they are the honourable ancestors of all other nations and tongues. Originally perhaps occupying the favored region, which has been depicted, and, when population increased and the waters receded, spreading into the neighbouring districts, and selecting by preference the near and charming regions to the south, east and west. Hence we find, in the countries immediately bordering on Tibet, the earliest states, the first formed kingdoms and the oldest civilization. History refers us, for the earliest germs of most of our ideas, arts and sciences, to the east, whence they subsequently spread to Media, Persia and western Asia. To this the earliest glimmerings lead us, and we cannot therefore be surprised, that whatever we know and do not know of the origin of the human race; of the formation of the first languages and states; and of the earliest germs of arts and sciences should be referred to western Asia. Egypt, which is said to have produced all learning and civil knowledge, as it were spontaneously, first comes into consideration at a later period, although the narrow valley of the Nile was earlier favorable to population and civili-

zation than many of the wide plains of western Asia; but all these nations make use, and did so in the highest antiquity, of polysyllabic languages, and it is reasonable to suppose, therefore, that they must have passed through a state of infancy and youth before their words became so comparatively complex.

It may then, we think, be concluded, from the arguments adduced and from others contained in the excellent anthropological and philological work of Adeling—a work which it is important that every one should study, who is desirous of becoming acquainted with the history of our species—that the original cradle of mankind was probably in middle Asia and in the elevated region to which allusion has been made: whence as from a centre, under favorable circumstances, the tide of population flowed towards every point of the compass, until the world contained the population met with at the dawn of exact history.

Φ

### ENGLISH ORTHOEPEY.

"————— usus

"*Quem penes arbitrium est, jus et norma loquendi.*" HORAT. *Ars Poet.*

"T is custom then whose arbitrary sway  
Our language and pronouncing must obey."

One of the first things that strike our attention on visiting any country in which the same language is spoken as our own, or in travelling through a distant part of our extensive Union is the greater or less difference which exists not only in the language, but in the pronunciation. In many cases both the words, which strike us as novel, and the pronunciation have been imported with the first settlers and been handed down from father to son without much alteration. They are genuine provincialisms—often vulgarisms. But in many, perhaps in the generality of instances when good English words are pronounced differently in different States, a vitiated pronunciation has arisen with some individual and been subsequently extended in various directions. We frequently notice in a family incorrect orthoepey introduced in some accidental manner and extending through all the junior branch-

es by imitation. Of the pronunciation which has been imported we have many familiar examples; we need only adduce a few which owe their parentage to Ireland, as *course, court, length, drought, strength*, which we often hear pronounced like *coo-ur-se coo-ur-ls, lenth, drouth, strenth* &c.

It is doubtless a matter of some importance that where the same language is used a like orthoepey should be adopted: but this is by no means a matter of facility. We have no mode of fixing the pronunciation of a word with the same degree of satisfaction, as we are able to fix the meaning. We have no standard for pronunciation: for although it has been by many determined to abide by Mr. Walker with all his faults, in preference to being without any guide whatever, the feeling is not general and we hear the greatest discrepancy in words where such could not have been anticipated.

There is indeed, as regards pronunciation, no standard but custom and this has always been varying: the pronunciation of the same words at the present day is very different from what it was half a century ago and the difference is still more marked if we trace farther back. It is not a hundred years since *that* pronunciation was introduced which, however unnatural it may seem on examination, has had an important effect in softening the language and rendering it more euphonical. I allude to the use of *sh* in many hard terminations, as in *creature, feature, virtue* &c. and although we may smile at some of the strange recommendations by Mr. Sheridan in his dictionary; he had a great agency in introducing *that* improvement.

Mr. Walker, with a degree of care and ability, which do him much credit, improved upon his predecessors and has certainly afforded us the best system of orthoepey, on the whole, which we possess, yet Mr. Walker's orthoepey is not the orthoepey of the present day. His dictionary is a catalogue of the modes of pronunciation followed at his time, with recommendations in other and numerous instances, that words should be in future pronounced—not as they then were but as he considered they ought to be. Many of the pronunciations, again, which he has honestly given as prevalent in his time have since undergone considerable mutations, whilst his

own recommendations, in spite of the good sense which generally characterizes them, have passed away unheeded, and an enunciation of a very different character has been adopted. The dictionary of Walker may depict the existing orthoëpy of the English language in an accurate manner in by far the majority of cases, yet there are numerous examples in which he cannot be regarded as authority. Mr. Walker is himself, indeed, not always consistent, and we are aware of the difficulties of being so in a work as extensive as the one he executed. A few cases, taken at random, will exhibit this in a striking manner.

In the word *bitumen*, Dr. Johnson, Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Entick agree with Mr. Walker in placing the accent on the second syllable, whilst Dr. Ash and Mr. Bailey lay it on the first. Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Walker, however, disagree in the sound of the *i* in the first syllable: the former pronouncing it like *i* in *fight*: the latter like *e* in *me*. But in *bituminous* Mr. Walker forgets his principle; and gives the *i* the long sound like Mr. Sheridan. The long sound is now scarcely ever heard either in one word or the other.

Under *boatswain* Mr. Walker's attempt to make *system* predominate over *custom* has had the inevitable fate which must befall every attempt of the kind in a matter which has been already regulated by custom.

"This word 'says bu' is universally pronounced in common conversation as it is here marked (*boon*): but in reading it would savour somewhat of vulgarity to contract it to a sound so very unlike the orthography. It would be advisable, therefore, in those who are not of the naval profession, where it is technical, to pronounce this word when they read it distinctly as it is written."

The principle which Mr. Walker here favors is that of pronouncing words nearly as they are written, but he well knew—what every one must know—that this principle cannot be universally adopted. *Boatswain* is not at all more unfairly dealt with than *people*, *bagnio*, *recipe* and a thousand other words. The recommendation of using a different pronunciation in reading from that which, according to his own account, is universally adopted in common pronunciation and in the profession in which it is technical is the weakest and

most preposterous reason that could have been assigned.

*Buoy* is another instance of a similar kind. It is a naval term and is universally pronounced by the sailor and by all dwelling near or attached to the sea, as *boy*. Some of the miserable puns of Mathews—the comedian—would have been totally unintelligible, had it been pronounced otherwise: but Mr. Walker says that this pronunciation "ought to be avoided by correct speakers." He adds "the diphthong (*uo*y) is found only in the word *buoy*, pronounced as if written *buoy*." Yet in the body of the dictionary he forgets this remark and gives it as if written *boo-y*. Mr. Walker's recommendation, however, fell from him still-born. We do not think that a single individual in England has ventured so far to oppose the universal custom as to pronounce it according to his view of the subject.

The difficulty of consistency is again manifested in the word *bergamot* "a sort of pear, a sort of perfume." Both Mr. Walker and Mr. Sheridan have given this word twice, first spelling it *bergamot* and then *burgamot* and very properly assigning the same etymon and signification to each. Yet they place the accent on the first syllable of *bergamot* and on the last of *burgamot*.

*Cadger* (so written)—from *cadge* or *cage* "a panner, a huckster, a churlish old fellow"—Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Walker cannot consent to pronounce—as it ever has been and probably ever will be pronounced—*Kodjur*. But—strange to say—they have not marked *cadjur*, at least in their later editions, but *Kedjur*! a pronunciation equally remote from the spelling.

With Mr. Walker's almost invincible objections to pronounce differently from what the orthography would seem to indicate we are surprised that he should even sanction the pronunciation of *canal coal* as *kennil coal*.

*Chamois* gives another instance of inconsistency. Mr. Walker has it written both *chamois* and *shamois*; but when he writes it with *c* he places the accent on the last syllable; whilst if it begins with *s* the stress is placed on the first. The universal custom at present is, to pronounce it in both cases with the accent on the first syllable.

*Confessor* would seem to have been once pronounced with the accent on the

first syllable as in the following lines of Dryden :

"To this sagacious *con fessor* he went,  
And told her he loved her."

Notwithstanding this old authority, which can only be esteemed evidence how it *was* pronounced, Dr. Johnson has placed the stress on the second syllable, as well as Dr. Ash, Dr. Kenrick and Mr. Bailey. Mr. Walker, with Mr. Entick and Mr. Sheridan, has, however, accented it on the first: and he has added the following remark; "It may be observed that this impropriety" (placing the accent on the second syllable) "is become so universal that no one who has the least pretension to politeness, dares to pronounce it otherwise." He farther says, in spite of the quotation from Dryden just adduced—"this word can now have the accent on the second syllable only when it means one who confesses his crimes." Notwithstanding this sweeping denunciation it is now extremely rare to hear any "polite" individual pronounce it otherwise than with the accent on the second syllable.

Mr. Walker, with many other orthoepists, lays the stress on the penultimate of *Elegiac*, because its derivation from the Latin *elegiacus*, Greek *ἐλεγεῖακος*, would not seem to admit any other pronunciation. *Elegiac* has the accent placed by them on the same syllable. Mr. Walker is not here consistent. In another work of his—*A Key to the classical pronunciation of Greek, Latin and Scripture proper names*—he has taken pains to shew, that even the ancient proper names may be by use nunciated with the accent on a different syllable than the one accented by them.

*Equerry* is accented by Dr. Johnson, Dr. Ash and Mr. Entick on the first syllable but Mr. Bailey, Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Walker lay the stress on the second. Johnson's is certainly the prevalent pronunciation.

Mr. Walker sounds the first syllable of *Flatulent, flatulency* &c. as if it were *flatsh* in which he is certainly not supported by the best usage. His pronunciation is soft but it is vulgar and conceited.

To *gape*, with the *a* as in *far*, is certainly not unfrequently heard, but we are somewhat surprised to find Mr. Walker giving this pronunciation and no other. He makes the following lame apology for it however; "the irregularity in the pronunciation of this word seems to arise from the greater

similitude of the Italian *a* to the action signified than of the slender English *a*."

He farther suppresses the *h* in *hospital* which, by the bye, at the present day in England is more frequently aspired than not; yet in the words *hospitable, hospitableness, and hospitality*, which are similarly circumstanced, he pronounces it. *Humble* is universally marked in the dictionaries *umble*; but the pronunciation is by no means as general as the accordance amongst the orthoepists would indicate. We now hear it repeatedly pronounced with the *h* aspirate.

Mr. Walker places the accent on the second or third syllable of *irrefragable*, Mr. Sheridan on the second only; whilst Dr. Johnson, Dr. Ash, Mr. Entick, Mr. Bailey, Mr. W. Johnson, Mr. Perry and Mr. Buchanan lay the stress on the third. Mr. Sheridan's, though standing alone, is certainly the prevalent pronunciation. We hear it frequently pronounced, by those who ought to know better, *irrefradgeable*. This is barbarous, and has doubtless arisen, in the first instance, from some mistake in the orthography of the word.

Both Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Walker pronounce *oblige* with the *i* long, and also as if written with a long *e*, but they give preference to the former mode; and Mr. Walker informs us, that when Lord Chesterfield wrote his letters to his son, it was, by many polite speakers, pronounced as if written *obleege*, to give a hint of their knowledge of the French; but it was so far from having generally obtained, that Lord Chesterfield strictly enjoins his son to avoid this pronunciation as affected. It soon became so general, however, that the long *i* was heard only from the lowest vulgar; but no sooner had this nobleman's letters appeared (which was about twenty years after he wrote them) than his authority had such weight with the polite world, that a change was soon perceptible; and this pronunciation is now never heard in the same circles where fifty years ago it would have been considered vulgar to pronounce it as it is now done.

In the word *orangery* Mr. Walker gives an affected pronunciation which will not bear examination. Because derived from the French he thinks it ought to have a French pronunciation,—*o-ran-zher-e*. The reason would apply to every word de-

rived from the French as well as to this—certainly there is no reason, if this were admitted, why orange should not be pronounced *o-ra-venge*.

*Pleiads* and *pleiades* Mr. Walker, for no satisfactory reason, pronounces *ple-ads* and *ple-a-dez*. The strong disposition to adhere to derivations, as exhibited in his pronunciation of *orangerie*, seems to have forsaken him here. In both the Latin and the Greek they could not have been called otherwise than *pli-ads*, *pli'adez*, and this is certainly the best usage.

All the orthoepists agree in placing the accent on the last syllable of *Prolix*; but at the present day, we think it is more frequently accented on the first.

In spite of universal custom Mr. Walker gives the pronunciation of *raisin*, *ree'zn* and the *reason* he assigns is, because, as is well known from the pun of Falstaff—in the Henry the Fourth of Shakspeare—such must have been the pronunciation in the days of Queen Elizabeth.

It is sufficient to remark, that such is not the pronunciation *now*, except amongst those who are unacquainted with the orthography of the word. The pronunciation, indeed, which Walker prefers, must have been a corrupt one even in the times to which he alludes. It is a pure French word, not in the least varied in its orthography, and Falstaff probably adopted a vulgarism, as any inveterate punster would do, rather than permit an opportunity for exhibiting his wit to escape him. But whether it was the fashionable pronunciation in Queen Elizabeth's time or not it is certainly not so now.

Equally obsolete in England, if it ever was in vogue there, is the sound of the substantive *rise* as *rice*—not *rize*. Mr. Walker says, that “it very properly takes the pure sound of *s* to distinguish it from the verb.” We see no necessity for such distinction. No confusion can possibly arise, whilst much inconvenience may result, from its being pronounced in the manner he advises. A planter in South Carolina, for instance, if informed that “there had been a *rice* [rise] in *rice*” or that “*rice* had taken a *rice*” [rise] could not comprehend the expression without some reflection or previous understanding.

These are a few of the words from a considerable number in which Mr. Walker cannot be looked upon as absolute autho-

rity. Still even the adoption of his principles through a nation might be better than the varieties we are continually noticing in the pronunciation of the same words in different parts of a country, particularly in one so extensive as our own. Thus in Virginia we hear engine constantly pronounced as *endjyne* instead of *engin*, *primer'rily* for *primarily*, *nessesser ily* for *necessarily*, *Quoits* for *coits*, although the orthography which is either *quoits* or *coits*, might have somewhat guided the pronunciation, *pint* for *point* and *point* for *pint*, a change which pervades all words of the kind, *deef* for *deaf* (*def*) &c.:—all which have received an erroneous pronunciation from some accidental circumstance, and have become common, because there has been no authoritative and sufficiently accurate and available standard to which reference could be made.

A good orthoepical dictionary, which would acquire the public sanction and carry with it sufficient learning and ability to command respect, is really a desideratum: and we do not despair of seeing the Herculean task accomplished.

Mr. Walker and other orthoepists have done much, but much still remains on which the polite scholar might exhibit his acumen, and tend to fix that which at present is ever vacillating and uncertain.

*R.D.*

Y

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#### FULTON.

*Sic vos non vobis.*—

Virg.

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#### PARAPHRASE.

Not for yourselves, ye sons of science toil,  
Not for yourselves, consume the midnight oil;  
Not for yourselves, ye task the wearied brain,  
And waste your lives in penury and pain.  
Th' ungrateful world, as soon or late you'll learn,  
Gives you no share of what your labours earn.

It has been remarked that the discoveries of science receive a small part of the rewards to which they seem fairly entitled, whether we regard their utility, their rarity, or the long course of patient labor and previous preparation that have probably been required for their attainment; and the reason commonly assigned for the injustice is, that the knowledge acquired with

so much difficulty is readily communicated, and soon becomes, by diffusion, the common property of the world. But this affords but part of the explanation. That class of men who are capable of advancing science are likely to feel great enthusiasm for its advancement, and a lively desire for fame. The celebrity they acquire by their discoveries constitutes a part, and much the most valuable part, of their reward. Their minds are so filled with the gratification which is thus afforded them, that the pecuniary profit to which their discoveries may be made subservient, is quite a subordinate consideration. But if men of science were influenced as much by the love of gain as of fame, they seldom have those qualifications for business, and for the common concerns of life, which would be necessary for their success. These must be looked for in a very different class of men—those who, though incapable of making discoveries, are very able to understand them, and to carry them into practical effect, from their knowledge of ordinary men and ordinary things. And such persons may often make fortunes by discoveries that would be utterly unproductive to their inventors.

The man of science, however, has wants like other men, and he may have a wife and children, for whose comfort it would be his wish, as well as his duty, to provide. With a view then to obviate this inherent difficulty, some nations, with a prudent liberality, have endeavoured to remedy the injustice, and to make provision for that class of public benefactors who are incapable of providing for themselves. In the monarchical governments of Europe, this purpose is commonly effected either by a pension, or by conferring some office that is little better than a sinecure. But neither of these modes of remuneration is in use in this country, or is likely to be so, without a great change in public opinion. The injustice is however not the less felt, and calls for a remedy.

The preceding reflexions were suggested to the writer by the recollection of a conversation which took place some time since among a party of gentlemen in a steam boat. The day was fine; the air good; the company agreeable; and as the boat was cutting her way on the broad Potomac, the very common topic was introduced of the incalculable benefit which

Fulton had rendered to mankind. It was agreed by all the company, as it might well be, that every individual who, in pursuit of business or pleasure, or health, is now induced to travel, is enabled to do so, with more ease, more expedition, and at less expense, by means of the mechanical genius and persevering efforts of Fulton, who has thus added to the pleasurable sensations of millions—that he may almost be said to have put money into every man's pocket—that while he has augmented both the commercial and social intercourse of the whole country, that of the western states has been advanced by him an hundred years in wealth and improvement—and that notwithstanding all these benefits, moral and political, it was a public reproach that his family should be in narrow circumstances. One of the party then proposed that a subscription should be immediately set on foot among those who were present, and that the public should be invited, through the newspapers, to follow the example. It was supposed by one gentleman that *twenty-five cents* could be obtained from every steam boat passenger in the United States; but he spoke from his feelings rather than his judgment, and when the appeal to his benevolence had the exciting freshness of novelty. Besides, it was found, on further reflexion, that a sum much smaller than that, and better squaring with the selfishness and necessities of the great mass of mankind, would effect the desired purpose—that even a single cent from each passenger, would in two or three years, perhaps in a single year, make the most ample provision for Fulton's family. Thus let us suppose that there are 400 steam boats in the United States, and, as there are three hundred on the western waters and in the State of New York alone, the number is more likely to be greater than less. Let then each one be supposed to have an average of 50 daily passengers, and the whole amount of contribution would be \$200 a day. Estimating the number of days they are employed in a year at 200, the annual amount would be \$40,000. An average of only 25 passengers to each boat each day, would of course give \$20,000 a year. If any part of this estimate be considered too high, the error may be corrected by extending the time. It was then agreed to propose such a contribution to the public.

But is the scheme feasible? We would fain hope that it is, and that at all events it is worth the trial. We would then respectfully, but earnestly, submit the following propositions to the owners of steam boats, and all who travel in them.

1. That the proprietors of each boat provide a box to receive contributions for the benefit of Fulton's heirs.

2. That every passenger be invited, without importunity, to contribute one cent.

3. That one cent of the passage money of every passenger who may not choose to contribute, be set apart to supply the deficiency.

4. That the proceeds thus contributed be remitted on the 1st day of every month, or as soon after as practicable, to the bank of the United States in New York, on account of Fulton's children.

In this way a liberal provision may be made, without being felt by any body, for the family of one of the greatest, if not the very greatest, of our public benefactors. Had Fulton been a subject of the emperor of Russia, he had probably been ennobled, and certainly enriched. Had he been a subject of Great Britain, he would have experienced the bounty both of king and parliament; and being a citizen of our republic, there seems to be a peculiar fitness and propriety that the reward of his useful labours should be bestowed by *the people*. Such a spontaneous act on their part would be honorable to the character of the nation both for intelligence and liberality.

They are urged moreover, to take this measure of tardy justice into their own hands, by the facts that the legislative provision, first made by the state of New York for the benefit of Fulton, (the exclusive right of using his steam boats in that state,) proved abortive, by its having been adjudged unconstitutional—that the bill introduced lately into the legislature of the same state, to provide for Fulton's heirs, was rejected by the Senate, upon some refined arguments of policy or right—and that no other state has attempted the same object, though in several of them the addition of many millions to their annual incomes has been produced by the genius of Fulton.

¶ Such editors of the public Journals as partake of our feelings on this subject are solicited to aid the success of the scheme, by inserting it in their papers. Q

#### MR. CAMBRELING'S REPORT.

(Continued from page 657.)

Having now freely animadverted on those parts of the report which we believed to be most objectionable, either because it was false in theory, or mistaken in fact, and was of a mischievous tendency, we turn with pleasure to those measures of policy, which the committee recommend, nearly all of which have our unqualified approbation. We cannot but think that the committee would have made more converts to the new system of measures they propose, if their facts had been less overcharged—their principles had not been pushed beyond the temperate limits of truth—and their report had been free from all taint of party feeling, which more or less infects every thing that it touches. The offence which every appearance of this sort in a legislative report naturally gives to those who, like ourselves, are placed beyond the reach of the impure mists of faction, has not prejudiced us against the merit of the measures proposed; but all those for whom their paper was intended do not chance to live in so pure an atmosphere, and to them, what is presented as a party question will be received as such—*incredulus odi*—what men are made to hate they are slow to believe.

But to the measures proposed by the report. We have already mentioned that we entirely agree with the committee in the policy of lessening the duties on such articles as are used in shipbuilding. By reason of the greater abundance of timber in this country we can build vessels cheaper than any European power, notwithstanding the present heavy duties on iron &c., but the neighbouring British colonies on this continent have the same advantages that we have as to timber, and they procure iron, cordage and sail duck, free of duty. Sound policy therefore requires that we should put ourselves on an equality with them in this respect, by allowing a drawback on the dutiable articles used in shipbuilding, as the committee propose.

We confess we do not see the policy of imposing high duties, not merely on manufactures, but also on the raw materials of which they are composed. As a measure of economy, protecting duties can never be justified, except when there is a reasonable



prospect that, by excluding foreign competition for a time, domestic competition will eventually bring down the price of the article to less than it can be purchased for abroad. But the duty on iron does not seem to be of that character. It causes furnaces and other iron works to be erected in parts of the country no longer favorable to them—where land is high, and fuel scarce—and where consequently the natural price of iron is more likely to become greater than less than it is at present. It is in fact the same sort of policy as that of Great Britain in her corn laws, by which poor lands are forced into cultivation, when the labour expended in cultivating them would purchase twice the quantity of grain from this country.

The duty on wool seems also liable to somewhat of the same objection, especially as to those species which we do not raise, but might manufacture.

The new duty on molasses, it is generally understood, was not approved by a majority of the congress which imposed it, but was supported by many with a view of making the tariff unpalatable to the New England states, where the article is extensively imported for the distilleries. This measure unquestionably contravened every object of national policy that is connected with our navigation. The same remark applies to the duty on salt, which we look upon as particularly unjust, if laid for any other purpose than revenue, though we were amused with those "logical deductions of arithmetic," by which the committee would shew, that though the salt of the Salina works would cost in the city of New York twenty-seven and a half cents, and foreign salt can be imported there for twenty-cents, the former has "a natural protection of 180 per cent, ad valorem," exclusive of the duty—merely because there would be that difference of price at Salina between domestic and foreign salt, as if the salt made there, was also to be consumed there. The natural protection of which the committee speak operates indeed at Salina, and the country still farther from the port of entry, but as we approach the coast, it gets less and less, and vanishes before we get to the city of New York, where by their own shewing, the natural price of foreign salt is lowest, and where there are 200,000 consumers. This is one of the many occasions in which the com-

mittee have weakened a good cause by bad argument.

The policy the committee propose to pursue of making our tariff with foreign nations a matter of compact with them, and imposing high or moderate duties on their commodities, according to the burthens they impose on ours, is not without its practical difficulties. But it seems to be so well calculated to counteract the illiberal policy of other nations towards us—so favorable to the principles of free trade—and so just in itself, that it well deserves the trial.

The committee very properly remark that in making this proposition, they "claim the merit of no originality." The same principle of reciprocity of duties with each foreign nation was proposed in 1794, in a series of resolutions introduced by Mr. Madison, in conformity with a report made by Mr. Jefferson, as Secretary of State; and the first resolution, which alone applied to the subject of duties, was actually passed by a majority of five. But these resolutions being then regarded as a party measure, were opposed as such, and their opponents afterwards succeeded in effecting their indefinite postponement.

The first proposition in Mr. Jefferson's report, to which Mr. Madison's resolutions conformed, was in these words:

"Where a nation imposes high duties on our productions, or prohibits them altogether, it may be proper for us to do the same by theirs; first burdening, or excluding those productions which they bring here, in competition with our own of the same kind; selecting next, such manufactures as we take from them in greatest quantity, and which at the same time we could the soonest furnish to ourselves, or obtain from other countries; imposing on them duties, lighter at first, but heavier and heavier afterwards, as other channels of supply open. Such duties having the effect of indirect encouragement to domestic manufactures of the same kind, may induce the manufacturer to come himself into these states, where cheaper subsistence, equal laws, and a vent of his wares, free of duty, may ensure him the highest profits from his skill and industry. And here, it would be in the power of the state governments to co-operate essentially, by opening the resources of encouragement which are under their control, extending them liberally to artists in those particular branches of manufacture for which their soil, climate, population and other circumstances have matured them, and fostering the precious efforts and pro-

gress of household manufacture, by some patronage suited to the nature of its objects, guided by the local information they possess, and guarded against abuse by their presence and attentions. The oppressions on our agriculture, in foreign ports, would thus be made the occasion of relieving it from a dependance on the councils and conduct of others, and of promoting arts, manufactures and population at home."

The report of Mr. Jefferson evidently contemplated arrangements by *treaty* as well as by legislation, in which case we do not see that the Senator from Missouri has any higher claim to the originality on which he seems to plume himself than the committee, who moreover, have the advantage of priority in reviving the subject, on the present occasion.

We rejoice at the prospect of making an experiment of this policy, believing that there never was a time in which we had less to lose or more to gain by its adoption; and we sincerely hope that the measures pursued in its execution will be so framed as to lead to a reciprocation of benefits rather than of injuries; but should it fail to do so with every nation, we still think that the sum total of our gains will exceed that of our losses.

We will not take up the time of our readers in considering the consequences of this policy in detail, as they will depend very much on the particular course that may be adopted by congress. In conclusion we will remark that, notwithstanding our strictures, we consider that the greater part of the report contains sound doctrines very well expressed, and that we have been the more disposed to reprehend those portions which we held to be of a different character, because we believed that they indicated feelings that ought to have been silenced on such an occasion. These feelings have been sufficient not only to mislead the committee occasionally in their general reasonings, but even in plain questions of arithmetic. Thus, by way of shewing the mischievous effects of the restrictive policy on the New England states, they rely on the diminished increase of population at each succeeding census, and remark that "the *ratio* might diminish regularly with an augmenting population; but it is evident that the *amount* of the increase ought to have been greater in every succeeding year." Now this may be "a *logical* deduction of arithmetic," but it

certainly is not *mathematical*, nor according to Cocker. We would also remark that the expressions "had we *have* possessed," "had we *have* had" "if that war had *have* continued" &c. are not English. The report, saving these grammatical errors, and its egregious want of method, is well written. K.

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### UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

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#### PUBLIC EXAMINATION.

(Continued from page 672.)

#### CHEMISTRY.

1. Explain, atomically, the formation of sulphuric acid, when sulphur is deflagrated with nitre in contact with common air, &c.

2. Explain the process for obtaining hydrocyanic acid from Prussian blue.

3. What is the composition of water by weight }  
measure } Mention the experiments illustrative of its composition.

4. Enumerate the different simple substances and mention the states in which they occur.

5. Give the rationale for the formation of sulphuretted hydrogen, when dilute muriatic acid acts upon sulphuret of antimony, first by supposing that muriate of antimony is formed, and secondly, by considering the product to be a chloride of the same metal.

6. When chlorine or iodine is put into solutions of the caustic alkalis, what substances are formed?

7. Mention the hydracids of most usual occurrence and explain the change of composition which their compounds with brass undergo, by exposure to elevated temperatures.

8. What are the distinctive properties of the metals? How many of them are lighter than water?

9. What attraction is it that enables fluoric acid to corrode glass?

10. In what particulars does cohesion differ from chemical affinity?

11. Upon what principle are bodies considered as electro-positive and electro-negative?

12. What are the modes for determining the composition of bodies—And how do they differ?

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